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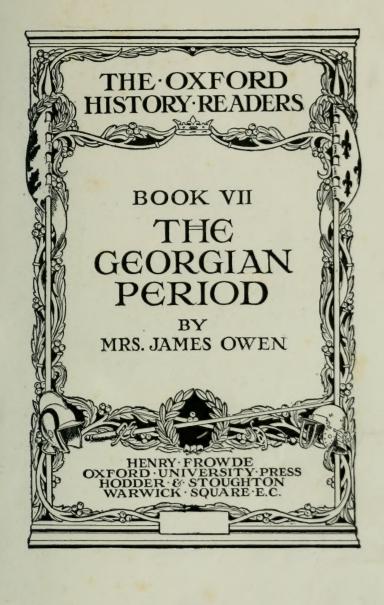
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COACH AND RUNNING FOOTMEN, 18TH CENTURY



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## Chapter I

#### Social Life in England from 1714 to 1760

ENGLAND during the reigns of George the First and George the Second, that is from 1714 to 1760, was a very different England from the England of to-day. There were no trains, no motors, no bicycles. The roads were so bad that motors and bicycles could not very easily have been used, even if they had existed. A traveller, Arthur Young, who has left a history of his travels in England and France at the end of the eighteenth century, tells us there were only four good roads in all England. He describes roads mended with stones as large as a man's head, roads that were ponds of liquid mud, roads with ruts of unknown depth, roads overshadowed with trees which kept them always wet, roads in which the coaches of travellers stuck fast until enough horses could be begged from neighbouring farms and fields to help their own horses out.

A writer who lived at Kensington, which was then quite in the country, wrote in 1736 that the road between that place and London "is grown so infamously bad that we live in the same solitude as we should do if east on a rock in the middle of the ocean; and all the Londoners tell us there is between them and us a great impassable gulf of mud".

But the old stage wagons and coaches made the roads of England cheerful and full of life. Their arrival in the little villages and country towns was the great event of the day. Many old coaching inns remain to show us by their size and importance that the number of travellers who passed along the roads was very large, and, as travelling was so slow, they required accommodation for the night as well as food for the day. In 1774 a handbill announced as a triumph of speed that a flying coach went from Hereford to London in a day and a half and that another went to Shropshire in two days.

The towns, and even London itself, were vet but London did not reach to Kensington on the West or to Bethnal Green on the East. The streets were badly kept and ill paved. The commonest rules of sanitation were unknown. The rain from the roofs of the houses was discharged into the street by wooden pipes and as often as not fell on the head of the passerby. The streets were badly lighted at night. Men and boys went about after dark carrying links or torches, made of wood dipped in resin or some other inflammable substance, and offering to light belated travellers to their homes. The coaches of the rich were preceded by footmen carrying "flambeaux", as torches were called, and we can still see outside old houses in London and in country towns, the extinguishers into which these torches were thrust to put out the flames.

The police force, as at present organized, was unknown. There were constables whose duty it was to keep order, to serve summonses and execute warrants. Under them were watchmen, who were often feeble old men. They went about the streets at night calling out the hour and the state of the weather, but were of little use in keeping order. It was a favourite joke

with rough young men, who called themselves Mohawks, after a North American Indian tribe, to beatandill-treatthese watchmen, and any defenceless people who were out late in the streets.

The streets, indeed, even of London, were very unsafe afterdark, and people ran a great risk of being robbed, or even murdered; and on country roads robberies were still more frequent. Smuggling too was terribly com-



A Night Watchman.

mon. It is calculated that half the brandy and twothirds of the tea used in the country was smuggled in free of duty. The smugglers conveyed their goods from the sea to London in armed bands, and some old country inns still show the iron handcuffs in which the smugglers were secured, if they were taken; but this, with the insufficient police force of the day, seldom was the case.



Old Signs.

Angel and Glove. Nag's Head. Hat and Beaver. The Brazen Serpent. Bull and Mouth. The Ape. The King's Porter and Dwarf. Doublet and Harrow. The Boar's Head.

London and the country towns and villages were very picturesque if rather unhealthy places. In the towns, the doors were not yet numbered. Rich people had their names on a brass plate on their door, and shops hung out signs, a red lion, a Moor's head, the red and white pole of the barbers, the three golden pills of the apothecaries, the golden lamb of the mercers, and later the Highlander, which marked and still sometimes marks in old country towns the tobacconist. In the villages the swinging sign-board of the village inn was picturesque among the green trees, and, then as now, there were the fine old parish churches in every village. Most of these churches are in what we call the Gothic style of architecture, the work of men who lived long before the eighteenth century.

This architecture had, in the sixteenth and seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries, given place to the Renaissance style, so called because it was the revival or re-birth of the old architecture of the Greeks and Romans in a modern form. But, curiously enough, in the eighteenth century men began to look back to Gothic architecture and to imitate it. Horace Walpole built a Gothic house at Strawberry Hill, and, from this, eighteenth-century imitation Gothic is known as Strawberry Hill Gothic. In old letters of the time, we read that Gothic stables, Gothic conservatories, Gothic summer houses, were the fashion, and that rich men even built Gothic ruins in their parks to look like ruined castles. At Radway in Warwickshire, looking over the vale of the Red Horse, an imitation Gothic tower still stands. It was put up in the eighteenth century by a gentleman to mark the spot where Charles the First erected his standard before Edgehill battle.

#### 10 Social Life in England

The clothes worn in those far-away days were much brighter than they are now. Gentlemen wore gaily coloured silk and velvets, and wigs instead of their own hair. Ladies wore hoops and silk dresses with large patterns on them, and silk hoods instead of bonnets. In the reign of the First George regular



Horace Walpole's House, Strawberry Hill.

uniforms began to be worn in the army, and very strange some of these uniforms now seem to us.

The life of those days is vividly brought before us by an artist named William Hogarth, who was born in 1697, and died in 1764. A number of his works are collected in one room at the National Gallery in London. In them we see the dresses of the ladies and gentlemen, and the strange uniforms of the soldiers; the madhouses in which poor lunatics were treated with a severity as cruel as it was unwise; the filthy, badly managed prisons. Drunkenness was in the eighteenth century a source of much misery among rich and poor, and Hogarth depicts this and other vices of his day with unsparing truthfulness.

# Chapter II

#### Education, Commerce, and Agriculture

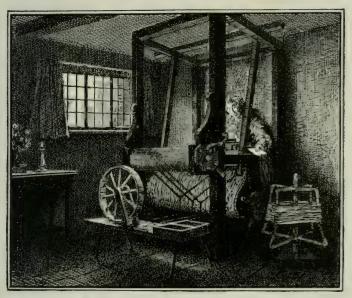
Nowadays, all children are obliged to be sent to school. But in the eighteenth century, no one was obliged to go to school, and there were very few schools for them to go to. In the year 1698, some good men had formed a society called the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. This society established a number of so-called Charity Schools, where children could be educated without cost, or at a very small cost. But as yet Government paid no attention to education.

What was done in this direction was done by religious societies, by the clergy, or by landowners. Very few villages were without their little "Dame School", kept in a stone-floored kitchen by some good woman, who had perhaps no methods of discipline and very little learning, but who did much to make the children under her care better children than she found them.

In those days, when roads were so bad and one village had little to do with another, each village was almost self-supporting. There was still much common land and much uncultivated land, where sheep and pigs and cows could be fed under the care of the village swineherd or the village shepherd, or were gladly minded by the unemployed boys who were not obliged to be in school. The trees around the village supplied wood for firing. The village blacksmith fashioned the iron tools and shoed the horses and the oxen, for even oxen were then used for the plough or the road. The hides of the cattle were tanned into leather. The sheep's wool was spun into varn for stockings or for cloth. Flax was cultivated for rough Even candles were home-made, the wicks of rushes dipped into boiling fat, and hence known by the familiar name of dips. As late as the days of William the Fourth, some village churches were still lighted by these tallow candles, placed in tin sconces on the top of the church pews. There were no matches. To get a light a flint was struck with a steel, and the sparks were caught on tinder which burnt quickly.

There was very little machinery, for steam as a power for driving machinery was as yet unknown. Cloth was made almost all over England in looms worked by hand. Most of this was made in cottages and in the homes of the workers. The custom of employing a number of people under one roof, although not unknown even as early as the sixteenth century, did not become general until much later in the century we are considering.

Manufactories which required coal did not quickly grow. The bad roads made the conveyance of coal costly, and it was mostly used where it could be conveyed by water, and for this reason was often known as



A Cottage Loom, Eighteenth Century.

sea-coal. The iron trade needed heat to smelt the ore, and it was therefore chiefly carried on in districts where there was much wood. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries Sussex was a great centre of the iron trade because of the vast tracts of forest land in the Sussex weald. Sussex children still play among the heaps of slag and refuse around disused

#### 14 Education, Commerce, Agriculture

iron furnaces, and names such as Iron Hill, or Mine Pit Copse are still heard. But in the middle of the eighteenth century the iron industry went to the coal districts, where coal could more easily be obtained for smelting.

Agriculture was making progress throughout the century. It is true that enormous stretches of land were still uncultivated, and covered only by ferns and gorse and heather, or by wood. It is true that much land, especially in Huntingdonshire and Cambridgeshire, was still undrained marsh. But men were beginning to learn that plants need food, as men and beasts do, and that fertilizers must be put into the earth to feed the crops, if good crops are to be hoped for.

In the first half of the eighteenth century two men, whose names deserve to be remembered, were bravely making experiments in agriculture. One was Lord Townshend, known, not unkindly, as Turnip Townshend, who lived at Rainham in Norfolk and died in 1738; the other was Jethro Tull, who lived at "Prosperous" farm in Berkshire, and died in 1741. They are to be remembered as the men who introduced "root farming", the more extensive cultivation of turnips and other root crops, for the winter-keep of cattle. Up to this time the cows and sheep had got what food they could on the brown winter fields, and the breeds of both sheep and cattle were poor and small. We are told that an ox, fed on the old system, weighed not five hundred pounds, while one fed on the new system would weigh more than double as much.

## Chapter III

# Parties in England at the Accession of George the First

When good Queen Anne, as the English people fondly called her, died in 1714, there were two claimants to the English throne.

One of these was George, Elector and Duke of Brunswick-Lüneberg, in Germany. By an Act of Parliament, passed in 1701, and known as the Act of Settlement, the crown of England was to descend at the death of Anne to George's mother, Sophia, the wife of the Elector of Brunswick-Lüneberg, or, as he is sometimes called, the Elector of Hanover, because Hanover was the chief town of his duchy. Sophia was the granddaughter of James the First of England. She died, however, two months before Anne, and her son George was then next in succession to the English throne, according to the Act of Settlement.

But some people wanted James Francis Edward Stuart, the son of the exiled king, James the Second, to be king instead of George, and so it came about that there were two parties in England at this time—those who supported the Hanoverian succession, and those who supported the Stuart succession; those who supported George and those who supported

#### 16 Parties in England at the

James, "the king over the water", as he was fondly called by his followers. *Jacobus* is the Latin word for James, and those who wished James to be king were therefore called Jacobites.



George I.

And as there were two parties in England, the Jacobites and the Hanoverians, there were also two parties in Parliament, known as the Whigs and the Tories. Both Whigs and Tories supported government by King and Parliament, but, if differences arose between these two, the Tories thought most

of the king's authority, the Whigs thought most of the authority of Parliament. The Tories held with the Church. "Church and King" was their war-cry. The Whigs were in favour of religious toleration, but the excesses of the Puritans in the seventeenth century were still fresh in their minds, and but little could be done towards this toleration.

Toryism had most followers in country places: Whiggism had most followers in large towns. As a rule, bankers, merchants, a large number of peers who owed their titles to William the Third, and the moneyed classes generally were Whigs, and as in those days it was not thought wrong to use wealth for political purposes, this gave them an advantage. To bribe and plot and to use



James Francis Edward Stuart, son of James II.

ignoble means to carry out what were perhaps high and noble purposes, was the fault of the age, and no party was free from it.

Both parties were bitterly opposed to each other, and as a rule seemed incapable of believing that any good could exist in the motives or the measures of the opposite party.

The Whigs, at the time when this history begins, were in favour of the Hanoverian succession. The

Tories, as a rule, supported the Stuart succession; but one party of Tories, known as the Whimsicals, supported the Hanoverian succession. The followers of the Stuarts, the Jacobites, gave much trouble during the reigns of both George the First and George the Second.

# Reign of George I

# Chapter IV

#### The New King

The new King of England, known to the English people as George the First, landed at Greenwich on the 18th of September, 1714. On his father's side he was descended from our King Henry the Second, whose daughter Maud married a German prince known as Henry the Lion. On his mother's side, as we have seen, George was a Stuart, and the first Hanoverian Kings of England are sometimes called the Hanoverian Stuarts.

English and Scottish Jacobites were, indeed, fond of making out that England's new king was but an insignificant German prince.

Wha hae we gotten for a king But a wee, wee German lairdie?

said a favourite old Jacobite song. But George came of a long line of princes on both sides, and when, on arriving in England, he said that he had come to ascend the throne of his ancestors, the words were true as well as happy. His Hanoverian kingdom was indeed small, but it had a large standing army,

and was by no means such a contemptible addition to England as Englishmen wished to believe it to be.

George was fifty-four when he came to the English throne. In some respects he was not unworthy of his great ancestors. He had shown wisdom and patience, perhaps indifference, during the long and uncertain waiting for England's crown. He had governed his German domains wisely. A traveller in Germany remarked that even the beggars did not seem as ragged and destitute there as they did elsewhere.

But while his German subjects parted from George with real regret, his British subjects felt very little love for him. They needed a Protestant king, however, and accepted the Elector. It may be doubted whether even the Whig party, to whom on his arrival in England he at once turned, had much devotion for him.

He was not a man to create devotion or admiration. "The Elector is so cold he turns everything to ice", wrote a French Princess. His manner was unpleasing. He did not care for the state and ceremony of a king's court. He had not taken the trouble to learn the language of the people over whom he was called to reign. He did not care for science or for literature. His mind was a contracted one. "His views and affection", wrote a celebrated Englishman of the time, Lord Chesterfield, "were simply confined to the narrow compass of his Electorate. England was too big for him." Even his appearance was unpleasing. His face was heavy: his eyes dull and without expression.

And there was a blot on his character to which his good qualities could not blind men's eyes. In 1682 he had married his cousin Sophia Dorothea, daughter of the Duke of Celle or Zell. She was a lively, highspirited princess. George neglected her and then

believed that she had offended him. He shut her up in a gloomy house at Ahlden in Germany, and there she remained a prisoner from 1694 until her death in 1726. Her name was omitted from the State prayers: her children, George Augustus, who was eleven, and Sophia, who seven, when was this imprisonment began, were never allowed to see her again.



Caroline of Anspach.

The queen's place in the English Court was taken by Caroline of Anspach, the wife of George Augustus, Prince of Wales. She is quite the most attractive of the new royal family who came in 1714 to make England their home. Her brave, cheerful face still looks down on us from her picture in the National Portrait Gallery, and even her ugly dress in the fashion of the day does not take away from her beauty and her dignity.

She was a sensible, shrewd woman. Her influence over her husband was great. She was known in England, and not undeservedly, as Caroline the Good, and in spite of some faults, which were more the faults of the age in which she lived than of her own character, she was a good and noble woman. She put up with the many troubles of her life with cheerful courage and good sense. "Poor little thing, you are come into a disagreeable world," she said to her first grandchild. But she went through the "disagreeable world" herself with courage and without murmuring.

# Chapter V

#### Cabinet Government

Up to the reign of Charles the Second the king had been advised on matters of national importance by the Privy Council. The Council was a large one, and Charles formed for himself a small committee or Cabinet Council, "with whom he concerted all measures of importance before submitting them, for a merely formal ratification, to the whole body of Privy Councillors". "This distinction", says the same writer, "of the Cabinet from the Privy Council has ever since continued." But besides the Cabinet we often hear of the "Ministry" or "Administration",

and of the "Prime Minister". We shall read in this history of Walpole's Ministry or Administration, of Pitt's Ministry or Administration. This means that the party which had the majority in the House of Commons, whether Whig or Tory, would follow the leadership of Walpole or Pitt or some other statesman who would be commissioned by the king to form a Ministry from among his followers.

The Ministry consists of members of the House of Lords or the House of Commons. It numbers to-day about forty or fifty members, and from it the Cabinet, which numbers about twenty, is formed. The members of the Cabinet are also members of the Privy Council. Lord Macaulay has described the Ministry as "in fact a committee of the leading members of the two Houses. It is nominated by the Crown: but it consists exclusively of statesmen whose opinions on the pressing questions of the time agree, in the main, with the opinions of the majority of the House of Commons."

It was in the reign of George the Third that the Cabinet and the Ministry assumed much their present shape. The Ministers of the Crown then began to be all chosen from the party which had the majority in the House of Commons at the time: they all began to act as one body: their leader began to be known as Prime Minister. Sir Robert Walpole, of whom we shall read presently, was the first leader of a united Ministry; and he was the first statesman who was known as Prime Minister.

Parliament did not then meet in the present Houses of Parliament but in the old palace of the king at West-



Old Houses of Parliament, 1821.

minster. The room in which the House of Commons sat was on the site of the present St. Stephen's Hall, a lobby connecting the House of Lords with the House of Commons. It was a beautiful old Gothic building, but its painted walls had been covered by whitewash and by galleries, its carved roof by a flat ceiling, from the centre of which hung a fine brass chandelier, which held many candles.

This old House of Commons was burnt down in 1834, and we can only now know what it was like from old pictures. From these pictures we can recall the three round-headed plain windows behind the Speaker's chair, the chair, the table before it, on which lay the great silver mace, the beautiful old brass candelabra hanging from the ceiling, the rows of Members on each side of the room, dressed, in the year in which this history begins, in gaily coloured velvet or silk coats, and wearing powdered wigs, and swords by their sides.

# Chapter VI

#### The "Fifteen"

The first Parliament of George the First met on March 17, 1715. It was a Whig Parliament, that is, it had a majority of Whigs in it. George, knowing that the Whig party were his best friends, attached himself to them as much as he attached himself to anything English.

The leaders in this Parliament were Sir Robert Walpole and Lords Stanhope and Townshend. You will read much of Sir Robert Walpole. Lord Townshend was principal Minister; finance was in the hands of Walpole: foreign affairs in the hands of Stanhope, who was a soldier as well as a statesman.

The new king's speech at the opening of Parliament was awaited with more than usual interest. He could not read it himself, as it was in English. Lord Chancellor Cowper read it for him. The speech was a good one. The king thanked his subjects for their zeal in placing him on the throne of his ancestors, and assured them that their happiness should be his first care. Something, too, was said about the unsatisfactory terms of the late peace with France.

For many years England had been at war with France. The war had been ended by the Peace of Utrecht in 1713. Men now began to find fault with the terms of that peace, and with the two Tory Ministers, Oxford and Bolingbroke, who had been chiefly concerned in bringing it about. They were both impeached by the House of Commons before the House of Lords. Bolingbroke escaped to France, but Oxford was imprisoned for two years in the Tower of London.

Bolingbroke had been the head of the Jacobite party, and when he was gone, John Erskine, Earl of Mar, took his place. Mar was known as "Bobbing John", because he frequently changed sides in politics. But in 1715 he finally threw in his lot with the Jacobites. He left London in disguise, went to

Scotland, and summoned the Highland lords to a hunting match on Dee side. To them he declared that he was determined to set James Francis Stuart



The Scottish Arms.

on the throne. On the 6th of September, 1715, James was proclaimed at Braemar, and the blue silk standard of the Stuart cause was floated on the breeze. On one side it bore the Scottish arms in

gold embroidery, on the other the thistle of Scotland, the symbol dear to the Scots, and the motto Nemo me impune lacessit — No one injures me without regretting it.

But the day was stormy and the gilded ornament which surrounded the flag-staff was blown down by the wild autumn breeze. Men remembered with fore-boding that when the unfortunate grandfather of the prince for whom they were about to fight had raised his standard before the Civil War of 1642, that too had been blown down by a rough wind.

Many of the great clans or families rallied round the blue standard of him whom they proudly styled James the Third of England and Eighth of Scotland; but the Campbell clan, the largest and most powerful, and therefore regarded with jealousy by the smaller clans in those rude rough days, was on the side of King George. Its chief, the Duke of Argyle, known in Scotland as Mac Callum More, was a zealous Whig, and was placed in command of the king's army.

In the lowlands and in the north of England there was also a Jacobite rising. The gallant young Lord Derwentwater, of Dilston in Northumberland, and Mr. Thomas Forster, Member of Parliament for Northumberland, were well-known Jacobites, and when their arrest as such was ordered, they determined to rise against the Government.

Forster was appointed general of the rebel army. He came of an old family. It was a saying in Northumberland that Adam and Eve were made, and then the



Map to illustrate the '15 and '45.

Forsters. But he was not a man to lead an army to victory, or to inspire men with belief in the cause for which he fought. Much of his failure was due to the fact that he was a man of drunken habits.

The little army raised in the northern counties was so poorly provided with arms that the story is told that, on entering the town of Wooler, the commanding officer gave the order, "Gentlemen, you that have swords, draw them!" But at Preston they were joined by some thousand men raised by the Jacobite gentlemen of Lancashire. There King George's troops, the red soldiers, sidier roy, as the Highlanders called them, came up with them, and disaster quickly followed.

Forster basely surrendered. He had, in fact, been in bed from "some damage" received the night before "at a convivial entertainment", when he ought to have been taking measures for the defence of his strong position. Probably he did not know what he was about when King George's troops made the attack. After his surrender he wept like a child, and said very truly "he was not fit for the post he was in ".

# Chapter VII

#### The End of the "Fifteen"

THE surrender at Preston took place on November 13. On the same day the Highland force under Lord Mar met another English force under the Duke of Argyle, at Sheriff Muir, near Dunblane. The battle was a victory to neither side, and the old song says—

There's some say that we won
And some say that they won,
And some say that none won at all, man;
But of one thing I'm sure,
That at Sheriff Muir
A battle there was that I saw, man.

After the battle the Highlanders, brave indeed in fight, melted away as has been said like their own mountain snows, and Lord Mar was left with but a small force of some 4,000 men.

On December 22, James Francis himself—the "Old Pretender", as he is often called—landed in Scotland. The tall, thin, pale young man, with his grave face and hesitating manner, was not one who could inspire hope or courage at a time of disappointment such as this. But he was determined to do his best. "Whatsoever shall ensue," he said, "I shall leave my faithful subjects no room for complaint that I have not done the utmost they could expect from me. . . For me it will be no new thing if I am unfortunate.

My whole life even from my cradle has shown a constant series of misfortunes, and I am prepared (if so it please God) to suffer the threats of my enemies and yours."

He stayed nearly a month with the remnant of the Highland army; then, on the 2nd of February, took ship for France. He went from no mean motive, but because he was assured that his followers could make better terms for themselves if he were gone. He left a letter for the Duke of Argyle, enclosing a small sum of money, probably all he possessed, to be given to the poor of those villages which had been burnt during the campaign, "so that I may at least", he wrote, "have the satisfaction of having been the destruction of none at a time when I came to free all".

When James Francis was gone, even the remnant of his Highland army dispersed. The Duke of Argyle showed himself unwilling to pursue his soldier countrymen, but General Cadogan with Dutch and English troops was less merciful. He burnt the houses of the insurgents, and hunted many of them down. By the spring of 1716 Scotland was at peace.

The treatment of the Jacobite army which surrendered at Preston showed that the Government was but little dismayed by the rising, and was disposed to be merciful. Only one in twenty of the insurgents was tried: twenty-six of these were hanged, some hundreds were sent for a time to penal servitude in the American Colonies.

But to the leaders of the insurrection less merey could be shown. Thomas Forster, Lords Derwent-

water, Nithsdale, Kenmure, and some other rebel lords were sent to London to be tried. They entered the city with their arms tied by ropes, and soldiers surrounding the horses on which they rode. Forster escaped from prison after a time, and fled to France. He died in 1738, and was buried at his old home of Bamborough by the sea. Three of the lords, Derwentwater, Nithsdale, and Kenmure, were condemned to death. Lord Nithsdale escaped from the Tower through the devotion of his wife, who came to see him, and sent him out of the prison dressed up in woman's clothes, whilst she remained in his place. We can read the account of this escape in Lady Nithsdale's own words, and can see in the Tower of London the house from which he escaped, and the door through which he passed. Lord Nithsdale lived in exile, and in 1744 died in Rome.

But the two other brave men were not so fortunate. Early on the 24th of February, the day after Lord Nithsdale's escape, Lord Derwentwater, clad in a beautiful velvet suit, and with a feather in his hat, as if he were going to his wedding instead of to his death, and Lord Kenmure were brought out of the Devereux Tower, where they had been imprisoned, to the space outside, now known as Trinity Square, but then as Tower Hill. There a scaffold had been erected, covered with black cloth.

Both men met death with courage and with dignity. It was long remembered how the body of Lord Derwentwater was carried down to his old Northumbrian home by slow night journeys, resting by day in

Roman Catholic chapels, for he was a Roman Catholic, and was finally buried in the little chapel at Dilston Hall.

It is said that ballads such as "Lord Derwent-water's good night" are still remembered in the north, and that the aurora borealis, which had been unusually brilliant on the night of his death, was there long known, perhaps is still known, as "Lord Derwentwater's Lights". Lord Kenmure, too, was not forgotten. Men remembered that when he left his home to join the defeated rising, his war-horse three times refused to let him mount, and the old ballad "Kenmure's up and awa', Willie", sung in many a north-country house, kept him in remembrance long after his unhappy death.

It had at one time seemed as if France would come to the aid of the Stuart king. But in 1715 Louis the Fourteenth of France died. He was succeeded by his great-grandson, another Louis, who was only five. The boy's cousin, Philip Duke of Orleans, acted as regent, and was king in all but name. He was anxious for peace with England, and in 1716 made a Treaty with England which ended for the present any hopes the Jacobites might have had of his help. In 1717 Holland also joined the alliance, which was then known as the Triple Alliance. In 1718 Austria joined it, and the Alliance was then known as the Quadruple Alliance.

These things strengthened the power of the Hanoverians in England, and weakened the cause of the Jacobites. But for a time two great powers, Spain and Sweden, were plotting with the Jacobites against the Hanoverian succession, and in 1719 a Spanish fleet was sent to invade Scotland. But wind and storm fought against James. The ships were obliged to return to Spain. Two had, however, reached Scotland with about three hundred troops, who were landed at Kintail in Ross-shire. At the little battle of Glenshiel King George's men defeated the Spaniards and a few brave Highlanders who had joined them. This rising of 1719 has been called the last sparkle of the "Fifteen".

While brave men had been fighting and dying for James Stuart, whom they looked upon as their king, the king whom England had chosen, George of Brunswick, was living very quietly in London, little affected by the rebellion in the north. He never felt very secure of his English throne, and would not have been surprised, perhaps he would not have been very sorry, if at any time he had been obliged to leave it and return to his beloved Hanover. But he was a man of quiet common sense, and as he had waited without impatience for the English crown, he wore it without much caring if he lost it.

### Chapter VIII

#### The South Sea Bubble

Two other events in the reign of George the First need to be remembered. One was the passing of the Septennial Act in 1716, an Act by which the Parliament then sitting was prolonged for four years beyond its natural limit of three years. This was done because it was feared that an election might cause riots between Jacobites and Hanoverians. From that time until 1911 seven years was the limit for any one Parliament.

The other event was what is known as the South Sea Bubble.

In 1711 a company, known as the South Sea Company, had been started, and an Act of Parliament gave it the sole right of trade in the Pacific Ocean and Spanish America. The Company prospered, and in 1720 the directors proposed a scheme by which they hoped ultimately to pay off the National Debt out of their profits. The National Debt had originated in 1693, when Charles Montagu, Chancellor of the Exchequer, and afterwards Lord Halifax, proposed that Government should borrow money from any who were willing to lend, and should pay interest, so many pounds each year for every hundred pounds lent, as long as they kept the money.

At that time there were no banks. People used to hide their savings in all kinds of odd places, in mattresses, behind the wood panelling which covered the walls of their rooms, or they would even bury it in their gardens. Men who did business on a large scale used to get goldsmiths to keep their money for them.

All this was very inconvenient, and so Montagu established the Bank of England in 1694. People paid their money to it instead of hiding it or leaving it with the goldsmiths, and the Bank paid interest on it. The Bank had also the management of the National Debt.

The arrangements made by the South Sea Company with the Government were too complicated to be fully dealt with in these pages; but their effects were as follows. Great numbers of people believed that they could not do better than entrust their savings to so powerful and prosperous a concern, and rushed to buy shares in it. Whenever there is a very great demand for a thing, its price always rises. The shares went up in price; cunning and unscrupulous men did all they could to increase the demand; and presently a share that once cost £100 could not be bought for less than £1,000. Of course no one would have been willing to pay such a price unless he had believed that the Company's business would give him a good return for his money.

But this apparent success of the South Sea Company set on foot many other schemes. New companies were started, some for useful objects, others for silly objects like importing donkeys from Spain. People were in such haste to be rich, and so dazzled by fine promises, that they were ready to invest their money in the wildest plans. Many of these new schemes were invented by rascals, of course, for no other purpose than to rob people of their money. Before



Sir Robert Walpole.

long the frauds were discovered, and then those who had bought shares found that they were worthless, and that their money had gone into the pockets of rogues.

This made people fear that all was not right even with the great and prosperous South Sea Company. They were just as eager

now to sell their shares as they had formerly been to buy. But when a great number of shareholders wish to sell their shares, buyers are not easily to be found, and the price goes down. Men who had paid £1,000 for a share discovered that they could not get more than £175 for it. You can easily see therefore that thousands of people were ruined: many had invested all their savings in shares which were no longer of any great value.

There was great indignation against the Government which had backed up the South Sea Company. Some of the Ministers themselves had become rich at the expense of the investors. Lord Stanhope was called on in the House of Lords to account for the disaster, and when rising to reply he was seized with a fit and carried home to die.

Then people turned to Robert Walpole, who was known to have a good head for figures, and who, they hoped, would be able to do something for the unhappy sufferers. He became Prime Minister and Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1721. He made the directors of the company pay £2,000,000 to the shareholders, and took other measures by which the shareholders got back about one-third of the money they had paid. His success gave people confidence in him, and he remained Prime Minister for twenty-one years.

# Chapter IX

#### Death of George the First

On the 3rd of June, 1727, George the First, who was now sixty-seven years of age, set out on one of his visits to Hanover. At four in the morning of June 11 he seemed to be in his usual health, and started early in the summer dawn from Dehlden, where he had slept, on the last stage of his journey. Before evening he was attacked by sudden illness. His attendants

wished to stop the carriage and obtain medical aid, but George muttered "Osnabrück, Osnabrück", and they therefore pushed on to that town, where the king's brother, the lay-bishop, Prince of Osnabrück, There George the First died next day. He was buried at Hanover, which he had always loved more than his English inheritance.

George the First was not an attractive character, but he had some great qualities. Although he did not care for England, he had shown himself patient as its king, and had done his best to learn the business of his adopted country.

We must remember George the First as being the first king of a new dynasty or family, the house of Hanover. All the sovereigns of England since the year 1603, when James Stuart became King of England, had been Stuarts, with the exception of William the Third, and he had married a Stuart princess.

Horace Walpole, of whom you have already heard, was taken by his mother to see the king at St. James's Palace, the "night but one before he began his last journey". Walpole was only a child then, but he says, "the person of the king is as perfect on my memory as if I saw him but yesterday. It was that of an elderly man rather pale, and exactly like his pictures and coins, not tall, of an aspect rather good than august, with a dark tie-wig, a plain coat, waistcoat and breeches of snuff-coloured cloth, with stockings of the same colour, and a blue riband" (the Order of the Garter) "over all."

The reign of George the First did not produce many remarkable men. Sir Isaac Newton, however, who died in the same year as the king, was one of the most distinguished thinkers and mathematicians of any age in the world's history. He was born in a house which is still standing near Grantham, in Lincoln-



St. James's Palace.

shire, and went first to the Grammar School at Grantham, and then to Trinity College, Cambridge. He discovered the prismatic colours in light, and proved what is known as the law of gravitation—the fact that every particle of matter attracts every other particle. By this means he was able to explain the movements of the planets.

His character was as remarkable as his intellect. He was modest, kind, patient, and genuinely religious,

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and if he was sometimes irritable, and sometimes suspicious, these were small faults to set against his real nobility of soul and his extraordinary intellectual



Sir Isaac Newton.

gifts. After his death in 1727 he lay in state in the Jerusalem Chamber, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

The poet Pope wrote of him:

Nature and Nature's Laws lay hid in night; God said, "Let Newton be," and all was light.

# Reign of George II

## Chapter X

#### Dapper George

The new king, George the Second, was forty-four years of age. He was superior to his father in many ways. He was a fearless soldier, and, when young, had served under the great Duke of Marlborough in the wars in the Low Countries or the Netherlands. When he was King of England he took part in a campaign in which England was engaged in Germany. A spectator said, "I saw the balls go within half a yard of his head." He was begged to go out of danger, but he answered, "Don't tell me of danger!" Then to his men he said, "Now boys, now, for the honour of England, behave brave, and the French will soon run!" He showed that he had English honour at heart, and that he was absolutely brave and fearless.

In appearance the new king was short; he had a pale, plain face, a high forehead, and prominent eyes. He spoke English, but not very fluently, and when he was at a loss for a word he helped himself out "with a world of action" with his hands. His people called him "dapper George" from his dignified, precise walk. The Jacobites called him the "Captain" from his

love of the army and all things connected with it. He was exceedingly particular as to money matters and as to his private accounts, spending much time over them. Little things, he himself said, affected him more than great ones. If a servant or gentleman



George II.

in waiting made a blunder on state occasions, the king looked as if he had received some dreadful news. He was an everlasting talker, but was never remembered to have spoken of his mother or her imprisonment, although it is believed that he resented her treatment by his father.

He married Caroline, daughter of a German prince, the Margrave of Brandenburg-Anspach. George was sincerely attached to her, and her influence with him was great—greater indeed than he knew or would have liked to believe. England saw this influence and was not displeased, for Caroline was popular.

You may strut, dapper George, but 'tis all in vain, We know it is Caroline, not you, who reign,

said a song of the day.

Caroline was indeed a remarkable woman, well educated, as education then went, and was always endeavouring to improve her mind and to keep up with the progress in science, in art, in letters, and in

politics. She was good-looking too, with a sweet face full of expression and charm, and a bright smile.

As George the First had been constantly at variance with his son George, when Prince of Wales, so, unfortunately, George the Second and Queen Caroline were too often at variance with their eldest son, Frederick Prince of Wales



Horace Walpole.

Caroline saw the merits of Walpole as a Minister, and in her own tactful way made the king see them also, and keep him at the head of affairs, which at first George was not inclined to do. He had turned to Spencer Compton, who had been his friend when he was Prince of Wales. Compton, however, had the good sense to see that he was by no means equal to taking

a prominent part in the government of the country, and asked to be relieved of such responsibility. The king agreed, and Horace Walpole, the great Walpole's witty son, called this speedy retirement "Compton's evaporation". It was followed by Walpole's return to power.

There was but little change in the social life of England during the reigns of the two first Georges. Englishmen seemed to be, with some few noble exceptions, without high ideals. To get rich was the aim at which most men were striving. The standard of morals in rich and poor was low: the amusements of the day were too often brutal. Punishment was brutal too, and instead of deterring people from crime it only hardened them. The law was indeed very strict. Over a hundred offences were then punishable by death. Picking a pocket of a sum over twelve pence or taking a loaf from an open shop window were some of these. The effect of this severity was that injured people did not like to prosecute and juries did not like to convict. Yet executions were very frequent, and thousands crowded to see them and to follow the processions of criminals in an open cart from the prison to the place of execution. As many as a dozen prisoners would be hanged at one time on gallows standing in the open streets.

Men, and even women, were whipped in public at the eart's tail. A great English statesman of the eighteenth century made the development of the infamous slave trade part of his policy. Cruelty to animals was unheeded and unchecked, although Steele and Pope wrote against it, Hogarth the painter revealed its horrors in a set of pictures, and the humane Duke of Montagu had a park to which all the old horses on his estate were brought to finish their days in happiness and rest.



The Racquet Court, Fleet Prison.

Prisons were still kept in a state of dirt and disorder which would not now be permitted for an hour. There was no proper discipline. Debtors and criminals of very different degrees of wickedness were all herded together in one building. The Fleet Prison in London became notorious in the early days of George the Second's reign, from the discovery of the cruelties which had been practised by the jailer, Bambridge.

Its precincts, too, were celebrated for the "Fleet Marriages" performed by clergy, themselves in prison for debt, without licence and without banns. One of these clergy is said to have married 6,000 people in one year.

Lord Hardwick's Marriage Act of 1753 put a stop to this scandal. It provided that the banns of marriage should be published on three consecutive Sundays in the parish church of both the parties, or that a licence for marriage should be obtained from the Archbishop, before a marriage could be celebrated, and that marriages could only be celebrated in the parish church.

Another scandal of the day was impressment. This was the forcible arrest of able-bodied young men for naval service. It was, as a matter of fact, illegal, but it went on unchecked. An officer with a party of sailors, known as a press-gang, would lay hands on any likely-looking man and carry him on board their ship, and many of the popular songs of the time bear witness to the hardship which this system inflicted on the friends of those who were thus suddenly and forcibly taken from them.

We have seen that education was little regarded by the State, but private people founded many free or Charity Schools, as they were called, of which the scholars generally had to wear a distinctive dress. Many almshouses for the old and poor were also founded, such as the picturesque Coningsby Hospital at Hereford for soldiers, sailors, and menservants. The inmates still wear a red uniform made after the fashion of the reign of George the Second.



OFFICER, KING'S DRAGOON GUARDS.

FUSILIERS.

COLDSTRIAM GUARDS



For amusements, neither the opera nor sacred oratorios, which had been introduced in the middle of the eighteenth century by George Handel, the great composer, were very popular. The theatre held its own and had been somewhat improved and purified by the Licensing Act of 1735, which gave the Lord Chamberlain the power of forbidding the performance of unseemly plays. The great actor David Garrick too did much to raise the stage, and to bring Shakespeare back into fashion after he had been almost forgotten.

But even more popular than the theatre were the great rooms and gardens of Vauxhall, near Lambeth, and Ranelagh at Chelsea. Illuminations, refreshments, amusements, were all to be found in these. The journey to Chelsea, which was then outside London, was not without danger. We read in an advertisement that "There will be a proper patrol, well armed, constantly passing between the Rooms and Hyde Park Corner".

# Chapter XI

#### War of Jenkins's Ear, and its Sequel

SIR ROBERT WALPOLE was Prime Minister during the first fifteen years of the reign. In the opposition, led by William Pulteney, were three parties—the Old Whigs, who called themselves the Patriots or the Country Party, the Jacobite Tories, who still hoped for a

Stuart restoration, and the Hanoverian Tories, who no longer clung to that hope, but supported the Hanoverian succession. The Patriots were discontented with the Government Whigs because they looked on these Whigs as the Court party, devoted only to the interests, or at least the wishes, of the king and the Court.

Walpole saw that peace was the greatest blessing that a country can have, and did all that he could to prevent England from going to war. For many years he succeeded, but at last even he failed. Most wars are caused by rivalry in trade, and it was a trade dispute that forced Walpole to go to war against his will.

Englishmen had long been trading on the Spanish coast of South America, and were constantly annoyed by the treatment they received from the Spanish coastguard. One case of ill-treatment caused great excitement.

In 1731 Jenkins, captain of the ship Rebecca, was accused by the Spanish coastguard of smuggling. They accordingly hanged him until he was nearly dead; he was then taken down, and it was said that his ear was torn off, and he was told to take it to his king. We do not know indeed whether the last part of the story is true, but it was believed by many, and seven years later, in 1738, the subject of the Spanish treatment of English traders having again come up, Jenkins was questioned before the House of Commons. He was there asked how he felt when hanged at the yardarm. "I recommended my soul

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to God and my cause to my country," was his answer. The words circulated from one end of England to another. They were in every man's mouth. England would go to war with Spain.

Walpole held back as long as he could, and then gave way to the popular cry. A better or a greater man would have given up his place at the head of affairs sooner than be forced into what he thought was wrong. But Walpole was not great enough or good enough to do this. He warned men indeed. When the bells of the London churches were set ringing for joy that England was going to war with her old enemy Spain, he said, "You are ringing your bells now, but you will soon be wringing your hands."

In October 1739 war was declared. It is known in history as the War of Jenkins's Ear. But its real cause was that the English were determined to trade with Spanish America, and the Spaniards were determined to keep the trade for themselves.

During the years of peace neither the English army nor navy had been kept in a state of efficiency. However, Admiral Vernon was given six ships, and attacked Porto Bello on the Isthmus of Panama. He took it in two days. England was delighted.

Next a larger force, twenty-five ships of war and seven thousand troops, was sent against Cartagena in northern South America. The expedition was a failure, and a shameful failure. More than half the troops died of the climate, of wounds, or of neglect.

But the expedition had a sequel: when Vernon went towards Cartagena, George Anson was sent to

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sail round Cape Horn, the southernmost point of South America, and to attack the Spaniards from the Pacific Ocean, while Vernon attacked them from the Atlantic. Anson's fleet consisted of six ships—the Centurion, Gloucester, Pearl, Wager, Severn and Trial. Through ignorance or delay, the ships set out just in time



Admiral Anson.

to encounter the storms of the March equinox of 1740. They were separated, but met at the island of Juan Fernandez, off the west coast of America. This island is remembered because Alexander Selkirk, a Scotsman, lived on it alone from 1705 to 1709, and, from his experi-

ences on it, Defoe made up his delightful story of Robinson Crusoe.

Only the *Centurion*, the *Gloucester*, and the *Trial* reached this island. To their crews the fresh water, the herds of goats, the grapes, figs, and beautiful shady trees were as Paradise after the storms and want of the rough voyage. The crew of the *Wager* had meanwhile been wrecked on another little island, and their adventures too are as exciting as any we read in boys'

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books of travel and adventure. The Severn and Pearl were disabled by storm and returned to England.

The three ships left at Juan Fernandez had a longer and more distinguished history. They set out from their pleasant island to take what Spanish ships they could. The Gloucester and the little Trial were both successful in taking prizes, as such captured ships were called; but after a time, for various reasons, the crews of both the Gloucester and Trial had to be taken on board the Centurion. The Gloucester was burnt, the Trial abandoned.

The little fleet was now reduced to one ship only, the *Centurion*. In that Anson sailed west, and after four years' absence, he returned by the Cape of Good Hope, and in 1744 was once more in England. He brought much treasure, and Londoners long remembered the procession of carts loaded with silver that passed through their streets.

# Chapter XII

# The Porteous Riots and Death of Queen Caroline

In 1736 the Porteous riots in Edinburgh, of which we read in Sir Walter Scott's *Heart of Midlothian*, occurred. They are to be remembered because they almost seemed as if they might shake the union between England and Scotland.

Their history is this: Two smugglers, named Wilson and Robertson, were under sentence of death at Edinburgh. When at church, under the charge of an armed guard of soldiers, and just as the congregation were leaving the church, Wilson, a tall, powerful man, seized three of the soldiers, holding two with his hands and one with his teeth, while Robertson made his escape in the crowd, who were perhaps not unwilling to shield him.

The magistrates of Edinburgh were not at all pleased with the sympathy shown with the escaped smuggler, and fearing an attempt to rescue Wilson, they surrounded the scaffold on the day of his execution with the City guard under Captain Porteous. The mob of Edinburgh allowed the sentence to be carried out, but after it was over they attacked Porteous and his men with stones. The stones were returned with a fire of muskets in which Porteous took part, and which killed six or seven men and wounded others. Porteous was tried for this, and sentenced to death by the Scottish judges.

Edinburgh approved of the sentence, but Queen Caroline, who was acting as Regent during the king's absence in Hanover, sent down a six weeks' reprieve. Thereupon the mob of Edinburgh burnt down the gate of the Tolbooth prison, where Porteous was confined, carried him to the Grass-market, and there hanged him to a barber's pole.

Porteous had been tried under Scottish law, by Scottish judges, and condemned; and when England appeared to side with him, and to send him a reprieve in spite of the sentence of the judges, it seemed to some ardent Scots an insult to Scotland. That no such insult was intended, and that Caroline probably only followed a kindly instinct, we may now believe. But it is not unlikely that the remembrance of the seeming slight put upon Scotland by the



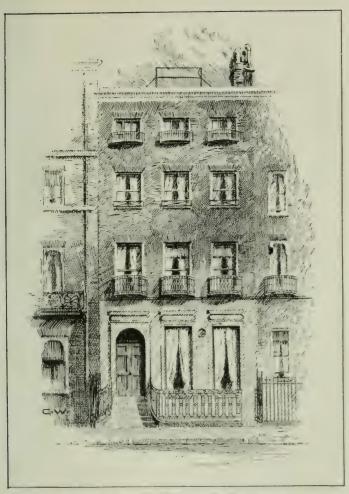
The Tolbooth, Edinburgh.

conduct of the English queen and the English Government, may have had something to do with the renewed activity shown in Scotland a few years later in the Stuart cause, and it certainly led to a very serious outburst of ill-feeling against England and the Hanoverian rule.

Queen Caroline was soon to pass away from the world in which she had played a not unworthy part. She had long been ill, but had striven to keep up that she might be the unselfish companion she had always been to the king. In November 1737 she became seriously ill. The king showed real affection and distress. At one moment he would burst into tears, at another he was recommending all manner of remedies, which the patient queen swallowed without complaint. She showed the same self-control and self-effacement in her death as in her life. She recommended the king, her children, and England's welfare to Walpole, in whom she had always believed. She asked her doctor how long she could live. "Your majesty will be soon relieved," he said; and she answered, "So much the better." Her last word to her daughter Emily was "Pray".

In 1742 Walpole's long administration ended. He was defeated in the House on a minor matter, and retired with the title of Lord Orford. In 1745 he died in Arlington Street, London, where a tablet now marks his house. He was buried at Houghton in Norfolk. There, says his son, "he who founded its greatness sleeps in quiet and dignity." No monument marks his tomb.

It cannot be said that Walpole's influence on England's political life was a good one. He took that life as he found it, made the best of it, but did not raise it. He bribed and gave away offices to any man who would support him. He made bishops without any regard to their fitness for their work. He mocked at what was lofty and high-minded in men. The characteristic of his long administration was peace: peace



Sir Robert Walpole's House, Arlington Street.

at home and peace abroad, a care for England's commercial prosperity, which peace secured, but no care for the country's moral welfare. He has been called the Great Peace Minister. His motto was said to be "Let sleeping dogs lie".

But we cannot leave Walpole without remembering what was best in him and in his rule. That rule did something for toleration, and the years of peace were good, for peace brings many good things into the homes and lives of the people. We must judge him by the political standard of his age, and that was a low one. It has been truly said that his son "had a right to boast of him, that he never gave up the interests of his party to save his own ". The Jacobite Shippen said of him: "Robin and I are honest men. He is for King George, and I am for King James, but these men only desire place either under King George or King James." Walpole wished to serve his country more than he wished to serve himself. His views of what was best for that country, and the methods he used, cannot always be approved. But we must remember with admiration his single-minded devotion and his absence of self-seeking.

And further, we must remember that when Walpole fell, a new policy came into being. That policy was to fight France and withstand the interests of the Bourbon family who ruled in France and in Spain. When Walpole resigned, they had the upper hand in Europe both by land and sea. A statesman was to arise who reversed Walpole's policy and resolved that England and not France and Spain should be supreme.

# Chapter XIII

#### Maria Theresa

Much of the history of the eighteenth century is a history of war. Most of these wars, perhaps all, were indirectly the result of that jealousy which each country felt for its own trade interests.

Trade is, of course, of enormous importance to a country. It means wealth and material prosperity. But we cannot too often remember that a country cannot become great by material prosperity alone. It is by attention to the moral and social conditions of its poorest, it is by making it possible for every member of the community to live upright, honourable, God-fearing lives, that a state becomes truly great, and trade and material prosperity are, without these things, of very little moment.

However, in reading the history of the wars of this century, we must keep in mind that trade interests were at the back of most of these wars: moral and social well-being were not prominent in the eighteenth-century politics. We must also remember that jealousy of France and Spain which, with the fall of Walpole, became so prominent in English politics.

In 1740 Charles the Sixth of Austria, Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, died. Before his death he had endeavoured to secure to his daughter, Maria Theresa, the succession to the vast possessions of Austria. Charles got the consent of his subjects in the various countries over which he ruled, and the consent of most of the European powers also, by a solemn decree, known as the Pragmatic Sanction, which secured the great Austrian territories to Maria Theresa.

Maria Theresa was only twenty-three when the Emperor Charles died. Her accession was welcomed by her own subjects, but foreign powers looked with greedy eyes on possessions of such vast extent. Frederic, King of Prussia, wanted Silesia, which was near his own territory. This Frederic is known in history as Frederic the Great. He was a man of unbounded ambition and of dauntless courage, but he was too often accused of stooping to what was base in pursuit of his ambitious ends, although he could also rise to real heroism.

Frederic got together his army, secretly left Berlin, and entered Silesia with thirty thousand soldiers. He defeated Maria Theresa's troops at Molwitz in 1741. Hoping her cause was lost, more claimants to the Austrian dominions sprang up. Spain wanted the duchies of Parma and Milan for one of the Spanish princes: France would have liked the Austrian Netherlands, which lay along the northern French border; and Charles Albert, Elector of Bavaria, maintained that the will of a former emperor had left the Austrian states to a daughter from whom the Elector was descended. He too made war, and France and Spain went to his help.

The cause of Maria Theresa seemed hopeless. France, Prussia, Bavaria, and Spain were against her. In the year 1741 she had been crowned Queen of Hungary. On the 11th of September she called together the Diet, as the Parliament of Hungary is called, at Presburg. Dressed in deep mourning for her father, and wearing the famous historical crown of Hungary, she claimed from her assembled nobles their support when all other support had failed. "The kingdom of Hungary," she said, "our person, our children, our crown, are at stake! Forsaken by all, we seek shelter only in the fidelity, the arms, the hereditary valour of our renowned Hungary States."

The whole assembly, it is said, drew their swords, exclaiming, "Moriamur pro Rege nostro, Maria Theresia!" "Let us die for our King Maria Theresa." It may be that these were not the words used by either Maria Theresa or by her nobles, but yet they truly represent her courage and their devotion.

Her appeal was successful: Volunteers poured in from all parts of Hungary. England had been already roused by the story of the brave and beautiful Empress. "Fair Austria", said Dr. Johnson, an author of whom we shall read more later on,

. . . Fair Austria spreads her mournful charms: The Queen, the Beauty, sets the world in arms.

England made a grant to Theresa's army, and in 1743 George the Second himself joined the Hanoverian troops which were sent against the French who were fighting for Charles Albert in Germany. It was at the battle of Dettingen in this campaign that George showed his courage, as you have already heard.

Soon after Dettingen, however, Charles Albert, who in 1742 had been elected emperor, was obliged to ask for peace. By the treaty made at Worms in 1743, Austria, England, Holland, Saxony, and Sardinia pledged themselves to carry out the Pragmatic Sanction.

In 1744 France and Prussia formed the League of Frankfort, to withstand the Pragmatic Sanction. England declared war against France, who had further complicated matters by talking of invading England and furthering a Jacobite rising.

The French, under the famous Marshal Saxe, attacked the Austrian Netherlands in 1745. England and Holland defended them for Maria Theresa. The English lost the battle of Fontenoy in Flanders in 1745, but took Louisbourg and the Island of Cape Breton in America from the French in the same year.

# Chapter XIV

#### The "Forty-Five"

The European war seemed a favourable opportunity for a Jacobite rising, and in 1744 Charles Edward Stuart, known in history as the Young Pretender, and sometimes as the Young Chevalier, and in Scotland as Bonnie Prince Charlie, made another attempt to gain the throne of England for his father. In his early days Charles was a man who won all

hearts. He was brave, light-hearted, and patient in hardship and disappointment. In war he proved himself merciful, and he was scrupulously honourable in his determination to owe no man anything. "I



Prince Charles Edward Stuart.

never love to owe, but on the contrary, I will deprive myself of little conveniences rather than run into debt," he wrote. He deserved to be loved, and he was. "If the Prince once sets his eyes on you," said one, "he will make you do whatever he pleases."

In 1744 Charles Edward went to France. The

French king, Louis the Fifteenth, was willing to help him, and sent out a fleet to invade England. But it was disabled by storm, and had to return to France, having accomplished nothing. "Evidently the winds are not Jacobite," said Marshal Saxe, who was in command of the French troops.

After this, Louis sent no more men to the Young Pretender's aid, but with one French man-of-war, the *Elizabeth*, and a smaller boat, the *Doutelle*, Charles sailed for Scotland. An English man-of-war attacked the *Elizabeth*, and she could not proceed. The undaunted Charles went on in the *Doutelle*. He landed at a desolate spot on the Hebrides. An eagle hovered over the boat as it neared the shore, and his followers were delighted at the omen. The king of birds, they said, was welcoming the prince to Scotland.

Charles finally landed at Loch-na-Magh, and sheltered in an old farmhouse. The seven friends who were with him are known as the Seven Men of Moidart, because their landing-place was in the district of that name.

The Scottish chiefs were at first slow to join in the rash undertaking, but the charm of the young prince was irresistible, and in August 1745 he raised the royal Stuart standard in the wild Glen Finnan, in Perthshire, where a monument now marks the spot.

A number of Jacobite songs once sung by the warmhearted Highlanders show us how great was their love for the young man who shared every hardship with them, wore the Highland plaid, lay on the heather under the bare sky at night, ate rough food without complaint, and, as they said, "could take his dinner in four minutes and win a battle in five".

Charles had soon nearly two thousand followers, and with this little force he made for Edinburgh. It was guarded by two regiments of dragoons who, when



Edinburgh Castle.

they saw Charles's Highlanders advancing, turned and fled. Charles went to Holyrood Palace, the old home of the Scottish kings, and at Edinburgh Cross proclaimed his father, James, king. King George's soldiers were indeed still in possession of Edinburgh Castle, but Charles held the town.

The English general was Sir John Cope. He marched towards Edinburgh. Charles went to meet

him, and came up with him on September 21 at Preston Pans.

On the night of the 20th the two armies had encamped near each other, but with a morass between. Through this the Highlanders found a way, and when the early morning mist cleared away, they were close upon the English troops. With the wild sound of their pipes they bore down on the English, who fled before them. Sir John Cope tried to rally his men, but in vain, and soon he joined them and went towards Berwick.

Sir Walter Scott's *Waverley* tells much of the brave men who fought for Charles Edward or for King George.

George was in Hanover when Charles Edward landed in Scotland. He showed himself fearless and undismayed by the news: "Pooh, don't talk to me of that stuff," he said. Still, although he did not believe much could come of the rising, he returned to England, and preparations were made against Charles Edward. An army was even assembled at Finchley to protect London. The Duke of Cumberland, the king's second son, was placed in command of an army in the north, and Sir John Wade with a third was stationed in Northumberland.

Charles was in Edinburgh, but he left it on October 31, and went towards England with an army of between five and six thousand men. The White Cockade was the Jacobite badge. The troops were in many cases badly armed. They wore the Highland kilts, and were known in England as the "petticoat men". Their wild bagpipes, their strange language, their

unfamiliar dress, made them feared, but their discipline was so good that few complaints were made against them.

With this little army Charles set forth for the conquest of England. He went by the old route

by Carlisle, Penrith, Kendal, Lancaster, Preston, Wigan, and Manchester. From Manchester he went to Derby, which he entered on December 4.

There the hearts of Charles's counsellors failed. They urged him to retreat. He spent one whole dayin argument with them, and then was compelled to give way. It was the bitterest day of the young man's life. He who had been so care-



A Highlander.

less in danger, so cheerful in difficulty, was silent and dejected, and many of his followers shared his dejection. "If we had been beaten," said one of them, "the grief could not have been greater."

On the 26th of December Charles's retreating army was in Glasgow. At Clifton, in Cumberland, an

engagement between King George's men and the Highland army took place. It is chiefly remembered as the last battle fought on English ground. There Lord George Murray was successful, and a hundred of the English soldiers were killed or wounded, while the Highlanders only lost twelve men.

Once again Charles was victorious at Falkirk, where on the stormy 17th of January his little army defeated King George's troops, trained soldiers who had fought at Fontenoy. The news created some excitement in London, and the Duke of Cumberland, the king's second son, was sent north to quell the insurrection.

On the 16th of April he met Charles on Drummossie or Culloden Moor. Cumberland had an army of about nine thousand men: Charles had less than five thousand, and they for days had been nearly starving. They were beaten, and with this battle the cause of the Stuarts was lost.

Nothing was now left for Charles but flight. From April to September of 1746 he was in hiding: often without food, continually in danger, with a reward of £30,000 on his head. A brave lady, Flora Macdonald, came to his help, and he passed as her servant. His expedition had lasted from August 1745 to September 1746, a little over thirteen months, and in spite of the reward placed on his head no Scotsman could be found to betray him. Such disinterested conduct, says Sir Walter Scott, the true-hearted Scotsman, will reflect honour on the Highlands of Scotland while their mountains shall continue to exist.

The rest of his story is a sad one. He fled to France,



Graves of the Clans, Culloden.

but was expelled thence: he wandered to Italy, and there spent his later life. He lost his early nobility of soul, but, as has been said, "the once gallant spirit" even then could "sometimes shake off its degradation and blaze into a moment's despairing brilliancy at the thought of the clans and the claymores, and the brave days of Forty-Five". He died in Rome on January 31, 1788. His brother Henry, who was a Roman Catholic priest and a cardinal known as Cardinal York, made no stir for the English crown, and died in 1807.

A tablet was erected in St. Peter's at Rome in memory of the two brothers and their father the Old Pretender. The simple inscription upon it, describing them as James the Third, Charles the Third, and Henry the Ninth of England, can hardly be read by an Englishman, says a great historian, without a smile or a sigh—a sigh for high ambitions lowly laid, a smile for vain pretensions only realized on a tomb.

It was necessary to punish those who had risen against the Government, and the Highlanders were therefore disarmed and forbidden to wear their Highland dress. But after a few years regiments were raised for the army from among these Highlanders. They wore the kilt once more, and have done loyal and distinguished service for their country.

# Chapter XV

#### Clive and India

In 1748, what has been called the "indecisive and vague" peace of Aix la Chapelle or Aachen was made. By it France was pledged to acknowledge Maria Theresa's claims. It ended what is known as the War of the Austrian Succession. None of the countries which had engaged in it gained anything except Prussia, which kept Silesia.

In 1751 Frederick, Prince of Wales, died. He had married Augusta of Saxe-Gotha, a German princess, and had nine children, of whom the eldest, George, afterwards became George the Third.

The king showed himself kind to the widowed princess. He had not indeed been very fond of his own children when they were little. "I did not love my children when they were young. I hated to have them running into my room," he said; "now I love them as well as most fathers." He had indeed not loved Frederick, but he was sorry when he died, and seemed to wish to do all he could for his children. He shed tears on his first interview with the Princess of Wales after her husband's death, and told the two princes, George and Edward, that they "must be brave boys, obedient to their mother, and deserve the fortune to which they were born". George, who was thirteen, was heir to the throne. He was created

Prince of Wales, and his mother was appointed regent in event of the king's death.

The year 1752 is notable for the change in the calendar—that is, in the reckoning of the days of the year. The old style of calendar was invented by Julius Caesar, and is known as the Julian Calendar. The reckoning of course depends on the time taken by the earth to go round the sun, and it was found that Julius Caesar's reckoning was not quite correct. So in 1582 Pope Gregory the Thirteenth altered the Julian Calendar, and his reforms were adopted in most European countries at once, but England was slow to adopt them. By the Julian Calendar the year began on March 25 instead of January 1.

In order to put the reckoning right, eleven days between September 2 and 14 were omitted in 1751, and the year 1752 began on January 1. An Act of Parliament was required for this. The bill met with much opposition, and "Give us back our eleven days" was used as an electioneering cry against the Government in their very necessary reform.

Henry Pelham, brother of the Duke of Newcastle, had been Prime Minister from 1744 to 1754, when he died. He was succeeded by the Duke of Newcastle, who, with one year's interval, was in office until the end of George the Second's reign. He was a man of less ability than his brother, and he had an indecisive way of speaking which made him appear more incapable than he really was.

Many of his utterances, or utterances which he was reported to have made, have come down to us. For instance, Annapolis was the capital of Maryland, one of the American colonies. It was necessary to defend it, and this was pointed out to the duke. "Annapolis! Annapolis!" he was reported to have said. "Annapolis must be defended. To be sure, Annapolis must be defended. Where is Annapolis?"

But he had one great and grand quality. While many men in those days made money for themselves in Parliament, the Duke of Newcastle was £30,000 poorer when he died than when he went into office.

In 1756, when the Duke of Newcastle was Prime Minister, the great Seven Years' War, in which England engaged, began. That war was fought in Europe as well as in India and in America. But it began in India and America before it was taken up by the British Government at home.

The English idea of her colonies, as we shall see later, was as yet a narrow one. She looked upon them simply as trading centres, and in reading the history of the next few years we shall see that at first their aspirations and needs were little understood in England. All this was indeed altered after a time, but at the period of which we are now reading, we must keep this fact in mind. Trade was at first the chief end in view in Britain's dealings with her colonies: they were looked on as existing simply for the benefit of the mother country.

The English colonies in America had been mainly planted by Englishmen in the seventeenth century who wanted to escape from the troubles of England at that time.

But the English settlements in India have another history. Englishmen went to India to trade. In 1600 some English traders got a charter from Queen Elizabeth giving them permission to trade in the East Indies. This was the beginning of the East India Company, which existed until 1859. The Company built forts in various places to protect them from the natives, or from rival traders, and these stations, as they were called, were ruled over by officers of the Company, and were defended by native soldiers whom we call sepoys. The chief stations were Bombay and Madras. France, too, had settlements in India, of which the chief were in the island of Mauritius and at Pondicherry.

It was wonderful that France and England, both thousands of miles away from India, should have been able, in those days of slow travelling and poor ships, to found these settlements. The voyage round the Cape, for there was no Suez Canal then, took many months, and when India was reached, it must have seemed to these early travellers more like the country in some fairy tale than any land on this earth. dark natives, their bright-coloured dresses, of a fashion never seen before, the brilliant sunshine, the unfamiliar heat of the days, the sudden darkness of sunset, the great elephants carrying the native princes under embroidered velvet shelters, the gentle-eved bullocks drawing the carts of the poorer people, the temples, the strange idols, the palm-trees, even the very birds and flowers, the poisonous snakes and insects, all must have made India seem a land of magic to these first English traders.

In the seventeenth century India was ruled by a potentate known as the Great Mogul, the head of a race who, in the sixteenth century, overran India.



A State Elephant with Howdah.

Under him were nawabs or lesser princes, ruling over their own territories, and nominally under the rule of the Great Mogul. But by the beginning of the eighteenth century his rule was little more than a name. The nawabs were, in fact, each independent in their own districts, and were often making war against each other. A wild tribe, the Marathas, who lived among the hills, added to the unrest by spreading over Central India.

Two European nations, England and France, were wishing for supremacy in trade with India. Before the Peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1748, there had been fighting between the English and Joseph Dupleix, the French governor of the French trading settlements in India. Dupleix was a remarkable man, who saw that the break up of the Mogul Empire was a favourable opportunity for Europeans to obtain not only trade but rule in India. He also was the first to make use of native troops drilled by Europeans. He had taken Madras from the English, and although at the Peace of Aix la Chapelle he had to restore it, war very soon broke out again. Taking advantage of quarrels among the native princes, Dupleix made himself master of a vast tract of country in Southern India.

And now Robert Clive comes into our history. He was born at Market Drayton in Shropshire, in 1725, and was sent to India, while yet a boy, as a clerk in the East India office. His family seem to have had no very high opinion of his talent. "After all, the booby has sense," said his father with pleased surprise, when his son became famous.

While Dupleix was plotting with native princes, making war on English settlements, and dreaming of a French empire in India, Clive, who had been gaining some little military experience as volunteer in desul-

tory engagements with French and native troops, suddenly became the hero of the hour.

A native prince. Mohammed Ali, was the last nawab who stood in the way of the French becoming masters of Southern India. He was now besieged by them in his last stronghold of Trichinopoly. With

that presence of mind which "astonished the Indies", Clive represented to the English authorities at Madras that if Trichinopoly fell, French ascendancy would be established. It was, he knew, impossible to relieve Trichinopoly: vet, by an attack on Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic. as South - East India was called. French troops might be drawn



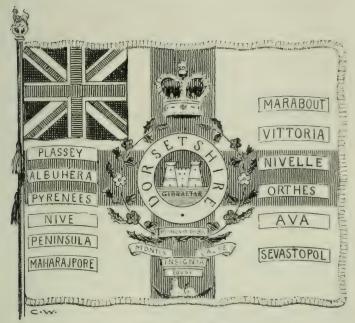
Lord Clive.

off from Trichinopoly, and the siege possibly raised. He was listened to, and in August 1751, with three hundred native and two hundred English troops, he set out from Madras for Arcot. He arrived before it in a tropical storm, and the storm fought for him. The garrison probably believed that men who were undaunted in the face of heaven's artillery, of thunder and of lightning, were invincible. They seem to have evacuated Arcot in a panic.

The Madras council then gave the victorious young leader command of the whole of their slender army, only nine thousand in all. With this handful of men he restored to Mohammed Ali his dominions. Dupleix was no match for Clive, and in 1754 he was recalled by the French Government, and died in France in 1763.

In 1756 the Nawab of Bengal, Surajah Dowlah, or more correctly, Siraj-ud-Daula, attacked the English settlement at Calcutta. The English prisoners, one hundred and forty-six in number, were thrust into a little prison, twenty feet by eighteen, in the fierce summer heat of India, without water, almost without Only twenty-three lived until morning. Sirajud-Daula was not perhaps to blame directly for the peculiar horrors of this incident, which is known in history as the Black Hole of Calcutta, but he neither befriended the survivors nor punished their murderers. But his indifference did not pass unpunished. Clive was given some English troops, among them the gallant 39th, now the first Dorsetshire Regiment, which carries on its colours the proud inscriptions "Plassey" and "Primus in Indis", and two thousand no less gallant native troops. He retook Calcutta and went towards Siraj-ud-Daula's capital of Murshidabad. Clive had but three thousand men: Siraj-ud-Daula had fifty thousand, mostly natives, but some few French.

At the little village of Plassey the battle which was to decide whether England should have supremacy in India was fought. At the hour of noon, when the fierce sun was beating down on the field, Clive charged. Siraj-ud-Daula's native troops fled: only the French artillery stood to their guns, but they were powerless to save the day. By five in the afternoon the battle



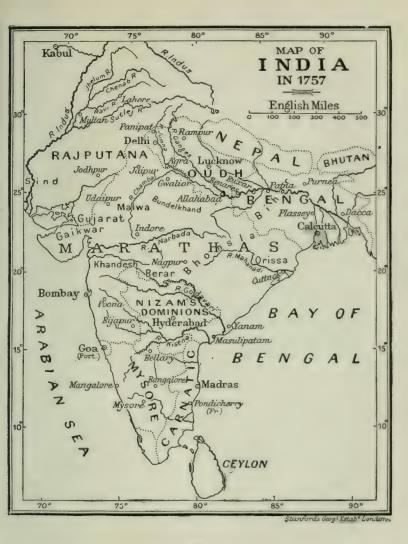
Colours of the Dorset Regiment.

was over: Clive was victorious. Plassey changed the fate of India. "With the loss of twenty-two soldiers killed and fiftywounded," says Lord Macaulay, "Clive had scattered an army of near sixty thousand men, and subdued an empire larger and more populous than Great Britain." While Plassey secured Bengal to England in 1757, in 1760 Sir Eyre Coote, who was fighting in the Carnatic, by the victory of Wandewash secured Madras. In 1765 Clive became Governor of Bengal, and held the post for two years, during which he did much to purify and reform public service in India. He deserves all honour for this, but his own conduct had not always been beyond reproach.

Before the battle of Plassey, a native named Omichund threatened to reveal the fact that Clive was plotting with Mir Jaffir against Siraj-ud-Daula. Clive promised Omichund money if he would keep the secret, and he forged the name of the English admiral, Watson, to the document which made the promise. After the battle, when Omichund came for his reward, Clive explained that the document was worthless, and the Indian went mad with disappointment. Clive excused himself by saving, "It was a matter of true policy and of justice to deceive so great a villain as Omichund". And after Plassey he took large sums of money to his own use from Mir Jaffir. This too he excused. "When I recollect entering the nabob's treasury at Murshidabad," he said, "with heaps of gold and silver to the right and the left, and these crowned with jewels, at this moment do I stand astonished at my own moderation."

History, however, does not condone his conduct on these two occasions, as he himself endeavoured to do.

Clive's end was a sad one. He returned to England in 1766, worn out in mind and body. In 1774 he died by his own hand.



## Chapter XVI

### Pitt and the War

WE must now turn to the English in America. The English colonies lay along the east coast, that portion of the country which Europeans would first touch when they sailed across the Atlantic. The French colonies were on the north and north-west of them. The English colonies were bounded on the west by the Alleghany Mountains—the endless mountains as the Indians called them. The territory west of the Alleghanies was debateable land between the French and the English. The English, however, wished to claim it as far as the Mississippi River.

Then the French made a gigantic scheme. They proposed to erect a line of forts from Canada to far New Orleans on the Mexican Gulf. These forts would have covered a vast stretch of country, and if the plan had been carried out Englishmen could have advanced no farther towards the west.

Fighting between the two nations began, as it was inevitable it would begin, although war was not declared. George Washington, of whom we shall hear more, was sent against the French settlement. Fort Duquesne, on the Ohio, but he had to capitulate at the Great Meadows, where he had made his camp. The French were so far successful.

Then the home Government in England thought

it time to interfere, although there was still peace between France and England. Two regiments were sent out under General Braddock, in the Christmas of 1755. His orders were to attack Fort Duquesne, but on his way to it he was surprised in one of the tremendous forests of America by a French force and

Indians whom they had taken into their pay, and was hopelessly beaten. Four days after he died of wounds received in the encounter.

Meanwhile, the New England militia had been more successful, but on the whole, at the close of 1755, success was on the side of the French. War was not yet declared between the two nations, but it was inevitable. On May 18, 1756, it was



George Washington.

declared by England: on June 9 by France. And Pitt was to manage the war.

William Pitt, who afterwards became Earl of Chatham, was born in 1708. He began life as a cornet in a cavalry regiment, but in 1735 he became member for Old Sarum. His appearance, when he first entered Parliament, was in his favour. He was tall, with a fine face and very keen eyes. His voice was sweet, but it was strong, and he spoke readily

without preparing his speeches beforehand. His character was as remarkable as his mental gifts. He came into Parliament at a time when corruption, selling and buying of votes and of interest, giving places to men who could pay for them and not to the fittest, was unheeded and unchecked. His lofty

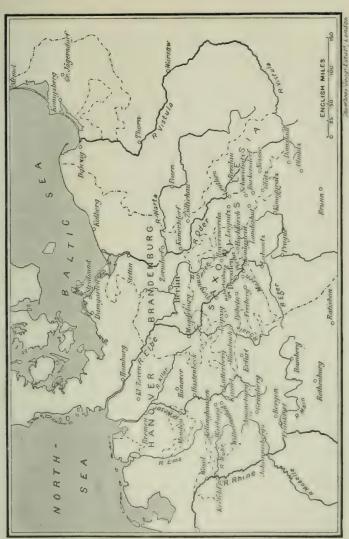


William Pitt, Earl of Chatham.

disregard of gain was a lesson to all men. He gave no bribe: he took none. He was to teach England that a noble, fearless following of what men believe to be right will command a success which no meaner methods can command. Before many years had passed theunknown young member for the borough of Old Sarum was to be the most honoured man in Europe.

Pitt was the man who reversed Walpole's policy. To withstand the Bourbon interest, the power of Spain and France, and to secure to England supremacy in trade was the aim of Pitt's policy and Pitt's wars.

It was in the hearts of the people of England that William Pitt was greatest. In the House of Commons he was not the influence that he was outside of it. Old Parliamentary leaders were indeed afraid of his



Map to illustrate the Seven Years' War.

brilliance and his new ideas. "We must muzzle this terrible cornet of horse," said Walpole, after Pitt's first speech in the House.

And now England was on the verge of the great Seven Years' War, which was indeed two wars: a war against Prussia on the part of Austria, France, and Russia, to win back Silesia from Frederic, and a war between England and France, which was fought in India, America, Europe, and on the sea. During the Seven Years' War, Newcastle was still Prime Minister, but the real power was in the hands of Pitt. "I am sure", he had proudly said, "I can save England and no one else can."

Pitt's great purpose in all his Parliamentary career was to uphold England's supremacy in Europe and in the then known world. To Frederic of Prussia, fighting against France and her allies, he sent help. He saw that to crush the power of France in Europe would be to check her power in America. "America", said Pitt, in one of his high-sounding sentences, which caught men's attention then, and are still remembered, "America must be conquered on the plains of Germany."

## Chapter XVII

#### Two Great Commanders

In 1756 war was formally declared between France and England. A French fleet attacked Minorca, an island in the Mediterranean, which had been bestowed on England by the Treaty of Utrecht in Queen Anne's reign. There was but a small English garrison on the island, and Admiral Byng, who was in command of the English fleet in the Mediterranean, instead of going to the relief of the garrison, sailed away to Gibraltar. This was in May. By June the garrison was obliged to surrender.

Great indignation was felt in England at the loss of Minorca. Admiral Byng was tried by court martial for neglect of duty. He was acquitted of the charges of cowardice and treachery in deserting Minorca, but was found guilty of not having done all he might for the relief of the island. He was sentenced to be shot. He wished to meet death with his face uncovered. Some officers told him it would disconcert the soldiers who were ordered to shoot him. "If it will frighten them, let it be done," he said coolly; "they would not frighten me." He said he had acted for the best at Minorca, and should so act again.

A compact was entered into between Newcastle and Pitt. Pitt was to manage the war and foreign affairs:

Newcastle was to manage home matters. It was said "Mr. Pitt does everything: the Duke gives everything."

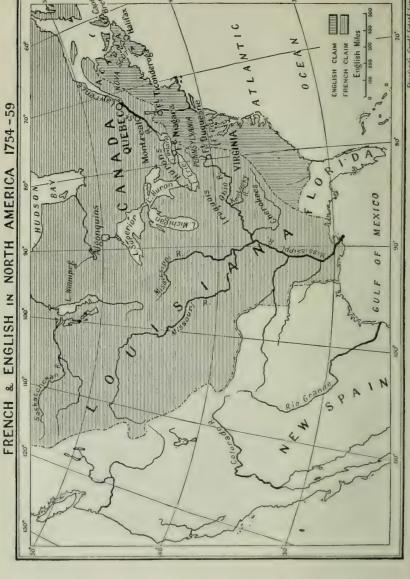
Meanwhile in Germany, Frederic of Prussia was fighting almost all the other European powers. His only ally was Great Britain. William, Duke of Cumberland, the king's second son, was sent to command the Hanoverian troops that were defending Hanover against the French. But he was defeated at Hastenbeck, and in September 1757 signed a treaty at Klosterseven, which allowed France to keep certain lands which they had taken from Hanover, and bound the Hanoverian troops to retire.

There was a burst of indignation in England, and Cumberland was recalled. The king greeted him in a public place with the words: "Here is my son who has ruined me and disgraced himself." Cumberland behaved with much self-control. He resigned his command indeed, but could not be drawn into uttering any disrespectful word against his father, or any apparent resentment of his severity.

In 1758 there were victories for England on sea and land. In America, Fort Duquesne (which was named Pittsburg after Pitt) was taken from the French, securing Western America to England. An English fleet was even sent against France and attacked St. Malo, taking some naval stores and three ships of war. The troops then re-embarked, and King George said of the affair: "I never had any opinion of it: we shall brag of having burnt their ships and they of driving us away."



A General View of Quebec from Point Levy.



Stanfurds Goog! Establ, Lund

But greater things were happening in America and on the Continent. In August 1759 the battle of Minden in Germany was won by the Allies. Six English regiments were engaged in it: six English

regiments are still proud to bear *Minden* on their colours.

In America the great event of the year was the capture of Quebec. Pitt's purpose was nothing less than the conquest of Canada, and Pitt himself planned its carrying out. He sent colonial troops and native American Indians, under Sir William Johnson, towards Quebec from the south; he sent English



James Wolfe.

troops under another general, Amherst, from the centre also towards Quebec; and a young commander, James Wolfe, with 8.000 men, was sent up the great St. Lawrence River direct to Quebec from the sea.

The French, under the command of General Montcalm, strongly entrenched behind their fortifications, and defended by precipitous rocks and by the rivers St. Charles and St. Lawrence, saw the English army encamping on the opposite shores of the St. Lawrence.

On the 12th of September, 1759, Wolfe ordered a

bombardment of the fortifications below Quebec, and there Montealm massed his men. But Wolfe, in the meantime, had made the plan of attacking the town by the steep Heights of Abraham, which could only



Marquis de Montealm.

be scaled by a dangerous track, so dangerous indeed, that an attack from this quarter was little expected by Montcalm. On the 13th of September, in the night, Wolfe and his troops went down the river towards the Heights.

The small boats could only hold half the proposed army of attack, and when these were landed silently, the boats returned for the others. The shore reached, Wolfe and his men pulled themselves up the precipice by the help of bushes and brambles and stumps of trees. At daybreak the battle began.



Wolfe's Monument on the Plains of Abraham.

The English were successful, but before the moment of victory came, Wolfe was mortally wounded. As he lay dying, an officer by his side exclaimed, "See, they run!" "Who run?" said Wolfe. "The enemy," replied the officer. "Then I die happy," said Wolfe. The no less gallant French general, Montcalm, was also mortally wounded. "So much the better," he said; "I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec."

Wolfe's body was brought home, and buried at Greenwich, the nation joining to honour the man who had gained Canada for his country by the victory of Quebec. On the Heights of Abraham one monument now commemorates the two commanders. it are the words in Latin:

> Courage gave them united Death, History gave them united Fame, Posterity gave them a united Monument. September 12 and 13, 1759.

The year of Quebec was indeed a year of wonders, as Horace Walpole said. England was fighting in India, in Africa, and in America and Europe, and "Indeed," said Walpole, "one in all was successful. is forced to ask every morning what victory there is, for fear of missing one!"

# Chapter XVIII

### Death of George the Second

On the 25th of September, 1760, George the Second died suddenly at Kensington Palace. He was buried at Westminster, in the Chapel of Henry the Seventh, where, twenty years before, Queen Caroline had been buried. He was the last English king who was buried in the Abbey.

Horace Walpole was present at the funeral of King George on November 11, 1760, and has left us an



Henry VII's Chapel and Tomb, Westminster Abbey.

### 96 Death of George the Second

account of the scene. Like all royal funerals in those times, it took place at night. The procession passed from Kensington to Westminster Abbey through a line of soldiers, every seventh man holding a lighted torch. The military music of muffled drums and fifes, the minute guns, and the tolling bells heard in the darkness of the night, were very solemn, and very solemn too was the Abbey, lighted up by the torches carried by the choir and the Abbey pensioners. The Duke of Cumberland, the late king's second son, was there as chief mourner, and though hardly recovered from a stroke of paralysis, he stood through the long two hours of the funeral ceremony, weighed down by his long black funeral cloak, with its train five yards in length, and half suffocated by the smoke of the torches. Dignified and quiet, he contrasted with the Duke of Newcastle, who was neither quiet nor dignified. One moment he was crying, the next "he ran about the chapel", says Horace Walpole, "with his glass to spy who was or was not there—spying with one hand, and mopping his eyes with the other"; and presently the Duke of Cumberland, "who was sinking with heat, felt himself weighed down, and turning round found it was the Duke of Newcastle standing upon his train to avoid the chill of the marble floor".

Thus George the Second passed from men's sight. He was not a great king, or a great man. His reign cannot be called a great reign. It saw little done for the social or moral welfare of England. Its longest administrations, that of Walpole, which lasted twenty-two years, and that of Pelham, which lasted nine



COSTUMES, 1760



years, were times of "prosperous lethargy" in the management of the country. But we must not forget that it saw the foundation of British empire in India and in Canada, and that it will be ever memorable for the names of Robert Clive, James Wolfe, Robert Walpole and William Pitt.

Before beginning the history of the new reign, we must briefly remember some of the celebrated men of the reign which had closed. Foremost among them we must place some whose lives were spent in work for others.

Among these was General James Oglethorpe. He was a native of Haslemere in Surrey, and his pleasant red brick house is still standing in the High Street of that town. He founded a colony in North America, as a home for poor debtors and a missionary station for work among the Indians. It was called Georgia, after the king, and Oglethorpe was its first governor. As long as he was at its head, alcoholic spirits, which he too well knew had been a source of degradation and misery to the natives, and slavery, were forbidden in the colony. Oglethorpe died in 1785. Years before, Pope had written of him,

One driven by strong benevolence of soul, Shall fly like Oglethorpe from pole to pole.

John Wesley is a still more remarkable example of a man whose life was given to the service of mankind. He was born in 1703 at Epworth, in Lincolnshire, of which parish his father was rector. John and his brother Charles both went to Oxford, and while

### 98 Death of George the Second

there gathered around them a few like-minded young men, who read and prayed together, and together received the Sacrament every week. They were called



John Wesley.

Methodists, because they lived by rule or method, but as yet none of them had left the Church of England, and, indeed, many of them remained within the Church to the last.

Among the number was George Whitefield, son of the innkeeper of the Bell Inn at Gloucester. He was ordained by the Bishop of Gloucester, and joined the two Wesleys, who had also become clergymen, in their marvellous missionary journeys.

Of all three it may truly be said, that they gave up all to preach and teach the lesson that the England of the day was in danger of forgetting: the lesson that goodness is the only true happiness. In summer sun or in winter gloom, they journeyed untiringly. They were mobbed and ill-treated by rude, rough men, but they were listened to, and in the midst of the wickedness, the brutality, the cruelty of the time, they lifted up a standard of what was best and highest.

# Reign of George III

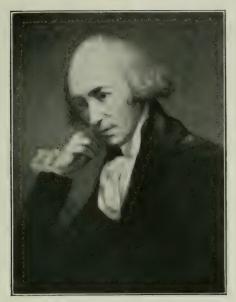
## Chapter XIX

#### Changes in England

The reign of George the Third was a very long one. It lasted from 1760 to 1820, and during those sixty years manners and customs and fashion in dress had so changed that the England of 1820 was very different from the England of 1760. We have seen that during the reigns of George the First and George the Second there had been but few social changes. At the accession of George the Third manners and customs and fashions were not very different from those at the accession of George the First.

In the reign of George the Third what is known as the Industrial Revolution began in England: new methods of manufacture and trade began to prevail. Up to the beginning of his reign England had been almost entirely an agricultural country. Her exports had been principally corn and some woollen materials also. But the industrial revolution may be said to have begun with the invention of James Hargreaves, in 1764, of the so-called spinning-jenny, which could weave many threads at once, and therefore did much more work than the simple old spinning-wheels.

About the same time Richard Arkwright invented an improved spinning machine, with rollers, and worked by water-power. In 1779 Samuel Crompton invented a still better machine, which combined the advantages of both Arkwright's and Hargreaves's inventions.



James Watt.

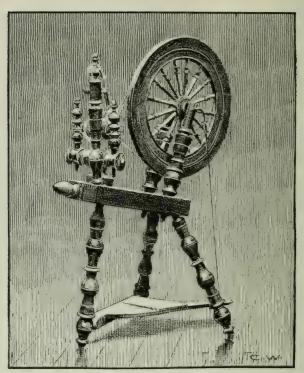
Then came James Watt, with his steam-worked machinery, and in 1785 steam began to be used in cotton manufactories.

Up to the time of these inventions, spinning had been principally carried on in the homes of the workers, in cottages and farm-houses, although some few

#### Changes in England

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small factories had been established. George Eliot's beautiful story of Silas Marner begins with a descrip-



A Spinning Wheel.

tion of those old times, when "the spinning-wheels hummed busily in the farm-houses, and even great ladies, clothed in silk and thread lace, had their toy spinning-wheels of polished oak". Silas Marner himself was a weaver, going from house to house to collect the home-made thread, and weave it into linen, in his little house at Raveloe.

The labour-saving machines were at first very unpopular among the workmen. Riots took place, and machinery was destroyed. But, although at first the introduction of machinery did cause much want and misery by throwing many out of work, after a time things righted themselves. Goods were produced more cheaply and sold at lower prices, and with their cheapness the demand for them increased, and by degrees the distress grew less. Men with money set up little factories, and factory villages sprang up around them. Little by little the old system of working at home gave place to the system of working together in these factories, and children were very largely employed in them.

There was no law obliging parents to give their children education, or forbidding children to work before they came to their full strength. This came to be a very serious evil, but it was long before the State interfered to stop it. For England underwent a strange change with regard to its trade regulations. For many years the State had endeavoured to regulate trade in various ways, and to keep its hand on it. Wages, for instance, had been regulated by Statute, and many regulations for colonial trade had been made. But in the latter years of the eighteenth century the State drifted into another plan. It ceased to interfere with trade, wages, and the like, and left such matters to settle themselves. We see how

disastrous this was in the matter of little children in factories.

Besides the introduction of machinery and the distress it at first occasioned, there was another cause of frequent distress among the poor in the eighteenth century. England was, as we have seen, a corn-growing country, but with the increase in population she was soon unable to supply corn for her own people except in very good seasons. And so wheat was often very dear, often at famine prices, and this meant much suffering. In 1800 the price reached 127 shillings a quarter when the ordinary price was between fifty and fifty-four shillings. Wages indeed had risen, as manufactures increased, but this increase bore no proportion to the increased price of bread, and so much want and suffering was the result.

The agriculturists were not idle in these difficult times. Much land was enclosed and cultivated. The breeds of cattle and sheep were improved. The scientific rotation of crops received much attention. It was a time when only farmers on a large scale, and with plenty of capital, could really prosper. That they did prosper and make large fortunes, the fine farm-houses, still to be seen in many country districts, testify.

As we have seen, machinery was much helped at this time by the adoption of steam-power for driving it. But, curiously enough, it was long before steam was utilized for traffic. As long ago as the end of the seventeenth century, indeed, a foreigner made a "little model of a carriage driven by this force". But in the years we are considering, men still made use of the horse for their journeys by land and for conveying goods, and as roads were bad, distance was only overcome slowly and with difficulty. For travelling by sea they were dependent on wind, and we read in a book written in the year 1754 by Henry Fielding, the novelist, that he left Gravesend on July 1, and did not reach Lisbon, for which he was bound, until August 14, all this delay being caused by the want of a favourable wind.

But the increase of manufactures made some better methods of conveying goods necessary, and canals or water-ways were very largely adopted. In 1761 James Brindley made what was the first scientific canal in England, for the Duke of Bridgewater. It went from Manchester to the duke's coalfields, some seven miles away.

Whilst reading the history of the reign, of war in America, of Hastings in India, of Pitt, or of Napoleon, we must always remember that a silent industrial revolution was transforming England, going on unceasingly whilst Parliament was occupied with other matters.

### Chapter XX

### First Years of the Reign

THERE is a portrait of George the Third by Allan Ramsay in the National Portrait Gallery in London. He is dressed in his royal state robes, and is a tall, good-looking man, with a pleasant face. He was twenty-two when he came to the throne. He had had a poor education, had mixed very little with other people, and neither before nor after his accession did he ever set foot out of England.

But he was a truly religious and conscientious man, and his court was free from all that had made the courts of his grandfather and of George the First no models for the homes of his people. His painstaking attention to the duties of a king, and his determination to be informed of every detail of foreign and English politics, remind us of his honoured granddaughter, Queen Victoria.

But because the young king's conversation in private was hurried and homely, because he unceasingly said, "What? what?" and "Eh?" men were apt to underrate his mental ability. If so, they must often have been surprised to see how much good sense and dignity he really possessed, and what a quick insight he had into character. Horace Walpole has indeed told us how royally he sat on his throne, how well he received and replied to addresses,

how dignified was his manner in public, how gracious in private. He behaved, says Walpole, "with the greatest propriety, dignity, and decency", on his accession. And in the years in which, as a prince, he had stood nearest the throne, he had been thinking his own thoughts, drawing his own conclusions as to

men and things, and quietly planning the future. He had an honourable ambition to be a good king, but he was not always wise in his estimate of what a good king should or could do.

In 1761 George the Third married Charlotte of Mecklenburg - Strelitz, one of the German



George III.

States. She was only seventeen, but on her first arrival in England she had shown herself neither awkwardly shy nor unpleasantly forward. She was not indeed beautiful. A private letter of the day told how the people were "quite exasperated at her not being handsome!" But she had many good qualities, and one anecdote of her early years deserves to be remembered. In the Seven Years' War, the territory of Mecklenburg-Strelitz had been devastated by Frederic's

troops. Charlotte is said to have written herself to the great man to ask mercy for those who were suffering: "My heart feels so much for these poor unhappy people", she wrote, "that it cannot withhold a pressing entreaty on their behalf." Like the king, Queen Charlotte loved simple ways, and had little taste for literature or art or court ceremonies.

In 1761 Pitt, the "Great Commoner" as he is often called, left the Ministry. He and the other Ministers knew of, or guessed at, the "Family Compact" between France and Spain, of which the purpose was to stay the growth of England's power at sea, and consequently her trade. This was the policy against which Pitt had long fought. England was at war with France; Pitt counselled war with Spain also. But the other Ministers did not agree with him, and Pitt resigned: but in January 1762 the war with Spain which he had advised was, after all, begun.

The war prospered. France and Spain were soon anxious for terms. Pitt made one of his most famous speeches against a peace being made. Dressed in black velvet, ill from gout, his face lined with suffering, he was carried into the House. He spoke for three hours and a half. He told, as he so well could tell, what the war had done for England, what England would lose if it were now discontinued. It had, he declared, placed England in a position to hold the trade of the world. By a hasty peace, England was giving up her opportunity of keeping that trade. Further, Pitt declared—and this was the point that should have appealed most to all high-minded men—that by making peace, England was deserting her ally Frederic of Prussia, and that desertion was "insidious, tricking, base, and treacherous".

But in spite of Pitt's eloquence, in spite of discontent in the country, 319 members voted for peace: only 65 voted against it. On February 10, 1763, the Peace of Paris was signed between France, Spain, Portugal, and England. By it England gained Canada, Nova Scotia, and some other territory in America; Grenada, St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago in the West Indies, Senegal in Africa, and Minorca in the Mediterranean. The English troops were withdrawn from Germany.

On February 15th of the same year, Frederic of Prussia made peace with the Austrians at Hubertsburg, and this closed the Seven Years' War. But Frederic never forgot that England had deserted him. He never trusted her again.

## Chapter XXI

### The King's Friends and Whig Ministers

THE first years of George the Third's reign saw an unusual number of changes in the Prime Ministers. Underlying these we see the king's restlessness under Whig rule.

In 1762 Newcastle resigned. He was succeeded by Lord Bute. Bute was popular with the king, but

he was unpopular in the country, because he was believed to possess undue influence with the Princess of Wales, the king's mother. His administration, Horace Walpole wrote, "begins tempestuously. My father was not more abused after twenty years than Lord Bute after twenty days." He resigned in April 1763, and was succeeded by what is known as the Triumvirate Ministry, the rule, that is, of three men. These three were George Grenville, and Lords Halifax and Egremont. In September of the same year further changes in the Ministry were made.

Grenville took the great Whig family of the Russells, of which the Duke of Bedford was the head, into his coalition. This Coalition Ministry, so called because Grenville and the Duke of Bedford coalesced, or joined, to form it, is known as the Bedford Ministry, but at the time, because the duke's house was in Bloomsbury Square, men called it the "Bloomsbury gang".

The Bedford Ministry only lasted until July 1765, but it was remarkable for two great blunders. The historian, Lord Macaulay, declared that it was "the worst administration which has governed England since the Revolution. Grenville's public acts may be classed under two heads, outrages on the liberty of the people, and outrages on the dignity of the Crown".

The first blunder of the Bedford-Grenville Coalition Ministry was this: a worthless but clever scoundrel, John Wilkes, M.P. for Aylesbury, libelled Lord Bute in a paper called the *North Briton*. Later, in No. 45 of the same paper, he spoke disrespectfully of the king's speech at the opening of Parliament. He was arrested and sent to prison, but he claimed the privilege of a Member of Parliament, and the Lord Chief Justice ordered his release. The supporters of Grenville, however, got Wilkes expelled from the House of Commons, and he fled to France to avoid further actions. Many who abominated his utterances and his notoriously bad private character, yet believed he had been unjustly persecuted, and resented the action of the Government.

Grenville's other mistake led to far-reaching trouble. In 1764, money being needed to meet the debt left by the Seven Years' War, he determined to tax the American colonies, and passed an Act levying customs duties on many articles used by them. Next year his Stamp Act was passed. It was an Act which levied a tax on legal documents for America, by means of a stamp which was affixed to them. The penny stamp on receipted bills is a simple illustration of this kind of tax.

On Grenville's side, it must be remembered that the colonies had benefited by the Seven Years' War, in which part of the dispute had been about the French and English boundaries in America, and that England was still keeping English troops in America to protect the English boundaries. But the English in America protested. Their argument, now and later, against taxation from England, was that, where there was no representation in Parliament, there could be no taxation by that Parliament, and that, as America was not,

and indeed could not be, represented in England's Parliament, England ought not to tax America.

While the Stamp Bill was being discussed, the king showed signs of insanity. The attack passed off, but the king wisely wished to arrange for the appointment of a regent in case his illness returned. Grenville brought a Regency Bill into Parliament, but the name of the Princess of Wales, the king's mother, was omitted from the list of those who might act as regents. At this the king was justly hurt. He wished to get rid of a Ministry which, as he thought, had insulted his mother, and Grenville had never been popular with him. "When he has wearied me for two hours," he said of Grenville, "he looks at his watch to see if he may not tire me for an hour more." A group of statesmen, known as the King's Friends, made common cause with some extreme Whigs who went against the Government, and voted against Grenville. He was turned out of office, and the king asked Pitt to form a Ministry.

Pitt made too many conditions, and then the king turned to Lord Rockingham. He was a man of high character, in an age when character was too little regarded. Before he was twenty-one he had inherited a large fortune, and was his own master. But this early independence did not lead him astray. While too many of the lives of the great men of his day were disgraced by excess in private life, and by much that was base in their dealings with each other, Rockingham went through a rough and bad world with an untarnished name.

But although possessed of much clear common sense, he was so quiet that he was known as the silent Minister, and had no talent for leading men. "How could you worry the poor dumb creature so?" said one gentleman to another who had been heckling Rockingham in the House. But it has been truly said of him, that if heaven had denied him "the resplendent gifts that immortalize Chatham, it had given him full measure of the virtues of patriotism, honesty, integrity, and zeal. The purity of his life, the probity of his actions, and the excellence of all his public purposes, commended him to the affectionate regard of all who held that morality was more essential to a statesman than eloquence, and that it was better to fail with such a man than to succeed with those to whom, for the most part, the successes of that day were given."

Rockingham only remained in office one year, from July 1765 to July 1766—but his one year of power did something to remedy Grenville's mistakes. The American Stamp Act was repealed. No less a person than Benjamin Franklin, the distinguished American, was questioned at the Bar of the House of Commons, during the debate on the bill for the repeal. Franklin was the discoverer of the fact that lightning was electric fluid: he was a student of science and of literature: he raised a body of militia, he engineered military defences for his town of Philadelphia, but he taught thrift and industry and peaceful virtues as well.

The Stamp Act was repealed, but Parliament

passed the Declaratory Act, which declared that England had power to legislate for and to tax the American colonies. There were great rejoicings when the news of the repeal was received at Boston. "It is impossible to express the joy the town is now in, on receiving the above great, glorious, and important news. The bells in all the churches were immediately set a-ringing", said the notice which announced the repeal. That repeal had indeed been a victory, but the Declaratory Act rendered it, in effect, vain.

In July 1766 Rockingham was succeeded in office by what we may call the Pitt-Grafton Ministry, which was composed of the friends of Pitt, and the friends of Rockingham, although Rockingham himself was not in the Ministry.

Pitt, who had now become the Earl of Chatham, had still great plans, but his health was breaking, and in December 1767 Grafton became head of the Ministry. Edmund Burke, a great writer and Parliamentary speaker, described the Grafton Ministry as a tesselated pavement, with no cement to keep the pieces together—"Whigs and Tories, treacherous friends and open enemies," as he said.

The Ministry was indeed a most unfortunate one, and did much to bring about the war which resulted in the loss of our American colonies.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer. Charles Townshend, a brilliant, unwise man, in 1767 taxed American imports, such as glass, red lead, white lead, painters' colours, paper, and tea. The articles taxed were trifling: the sum raised was trifling; but, as we shall

see later, there was a principle behind, which made the taxes very unwelcome to the American colonists.

Townshend died in the same year as he brought in his American taxation, but the difficulty caused by his Act went on. The dissatisfaction in America was so determined that Grafton wished to repeal the taxation; but even his followers were opposed to him. As a further difficulty, John Wilkes, who had returned to England, was elected Member for Middlesex. The House would not let him sit. He was again elected. The House declared he was disqualified. He was a third time elected, and still refused his place in the House. Again, and for the fourth time, he was elected, the votes being 1,143 for Wilkes, 296 for his opponent, Colonel Luttrell.

And, to add still more to Grafton's troubles, an anonymous writer, who signed himself Junius, wrote violent letters against the king and the Government. Grafton could not stand against the storm. He resigned, unregretted, in January 1770. His administration had been characterized, said Horace Walpole, by haughtiness, indolence, reserve and improvidence. He was, Walpole adds, "the fourth Prime Minister in seven years who fell by his own fault." Bute, Grenville, the high-minded Rockingham, Grafton, had all been the victims of their own incapacity, or of the king's determined opposition to Whig rule.

The Duke of Grafton was succeeded as Prime Minister by Lord North. The king had at last found a Minister to suit him. North was a sweet-tempered

### 116 King's Friends and Whig Ministers

man, with much good sense, and some power as a leader. Whereas the seven years from 1763 to 1770 had seen rapid changes in the Ministry, Lord North remained in power for twelve years. He was



Lord North.

upheld by the party in Parliament who were known as the King's Friends. The Whigs, who for so many years had ruled England, were no longer a united body. The government of the country had for a time slipped from the hands of the once all-powerful Whig Party.

### Chapter XXII

#### American Affairs

WE are now going to leave English affairs for a time, and turn to America and the war which was soon to make America independent of the mother country.

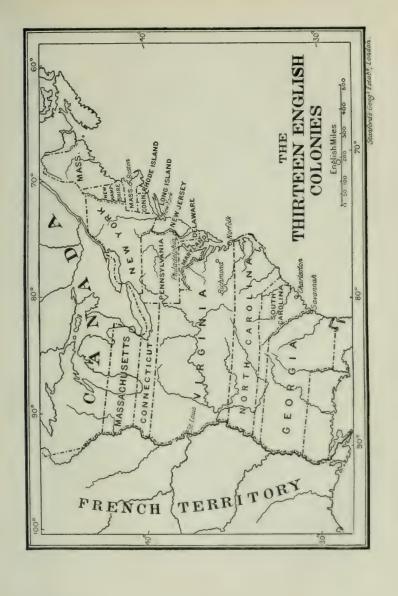
In considering that war we have to remember what England's policy had been so far towards her colonies. The colonists felt that England had thought of herself and not of them. She had been afraid of colonial trade hindering home trade. For instance, the colonists were obliged to send their sugar and tobacco to England to be sold. They were not allowed to manufacture iron goods, because it would take away trade from the English ironworkers. They were not allowed to manufacture beaver hats, but must send the beaver-skins to England to be made up. Such regulations hampered colonial trade, and made the colonists believe that their mother country did not sufficiently consider the interests of her colonial Above all, though they did not wish for separation, they did wish to manage their own affairs without interference. These feelings, rather than the Stamp Act, or any other Act, were the cause of the American War of Independence. The Stamp Act was but a small part of a great whole.

In the eighteenth century there were thirteen colonies in North-Eastern America, English colonies planted at various times. They were Massachusetts,

which included Maine, New York, which included Vermont, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Maryland, New Jersey, Delaware, Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia. The American flag consists of thirteen red and white stripes and a number of stars in the left-hand corner. The thirteen stripes represent the old thirteen colonies, the stars represent the present states.

As you will see by looking at the map, these thirteen colonies lay on the east of America, that side which was nearest Europe, from which the first settlers came. This vast district was bounded on the west by the Alleghany Mountains, and further west by the Mississippi River. Beyond the Mississippi was the uncolonized country into which the Indians were being driven by the English settlers. Then, far in the north, were the great Lakes Superior, Michigan Huron, Erie, and Ontario. Another great river, the Hudson, ran south through the northern states, and into the sea at New York. Near the source of this river were some smaller lakes, of which you need only remember the names of Lake Champlain and Lake St. George.

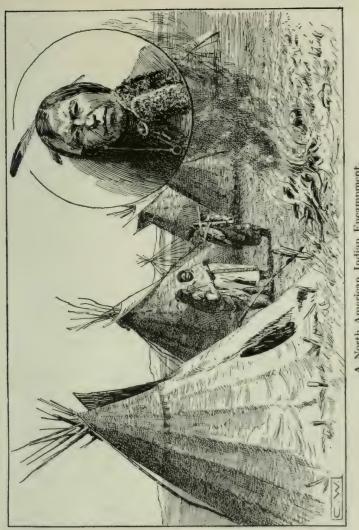
In this vast continent of North America there was every variety of scenery—lakes, rivers, wild hills and wilder mountains, plains where herds of buffalo and flocks of wild turkeys wandered. Wild water birds made the lakes beautiful, and overhead we might see a grand eagle, to whose great wings distances were nothing. In the vast woodlands were bears and caribou deer.



In the eighteenth century the Indians were very much more numerous than they are now. They lived in wigwams or tents, and wandered over the face of their great country. Longfellow's poem Hiawatha describes these "backwoods", as our English settlers called them. Longfellow describes them and the Indians very beautifully, but he describes them in a poetical way, and does not intend to give us an altogether true picture of them. For all that, it will help you to remember much about the original dwellers in America if you read Hiawatha, or Fenimore Cooper's Last of the Mohicans, or The Pathfinder. And on a map of North America you will see the territory now occupied by the descendants of these people, still bearing the names of their tribes. These names seem very strange to us—the Cherokees, the Chippewas, the Choctaws, the Sioux, the Crees, the Kiowas, and many more.

Some of the American colonies were known as the New England colonies, and they were in some respects different from the rest. They were Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Connecticut, and Rhode Island. They had been colonized chiefly by Puritans in the seventeenth century. Boston was the chief town.

It has been truly said of these men of New England that, although they were anxious for the material prosperity of their country, they never forgot that there was something higher and better than material prosperity. Every town—and districts, although poorly populated, were then called towns—of fifty houses was to have a school, where children could



A North American Indian Encampment.

be taught to read and write: every township of a hundred families was to have a grammar school. Speaking roughly, the New England colonists were Nonconformists, and although many of them were building beautiful houses for themselves, and laying out gardens around them, they were generally characterized by simplicity of life, and a high religious and moral tone. Their trade was the fisheries of the West, timber from the great forests, and corn.

The southern colonists were of a different type. The trade of Virginia was chiefly in tobacco: Georgia and North and South Carolina grew rice, maize, and indigo. In these southern states, instead of farms, as in New England, there were large tracts of country cultivated by slaves brought from Africa. There was greater luxury, perhaps, and less simplicity, than in the north, and education was less attended to. And yet, we must not think the Virginian settlers were an unworthy race. The great George Washington, the first President of the United States, and four of the first five Presidents, were Virginians.

In 1767 the English Chancellor of the Exchequer had, as you remember, taxed American imports, but in 1770 all these taxes were taken off, except the tax on tea. The tax was as unpopular as the other taxes had been, and for the same reason. Most of the ships which brought the taxed tea into the American ports were sent away without being allowed to land the tea. At Boston, on the night of December 16, 1773, some ships containing tea were boarded by Boston citizens, dressed up as Mohawk Indians, and

the tea chests were broken open, and the tea thrown into the sea.

The Parliament of England, which had shown itself so ignorant of the feelings of the colonists from the first, ordered the port of Boston to be closed. Further, by the Massachusetts Government Act, it altered the old Charter of the Colony of Massachusetts, took away its House of Representatives, and decreed that its governing body should be appointed by the English Government, and not elected by the people of the Massachusetts State.

Up to this time each colony had its own House of Assembly, which was in fact a Parliament. Each colony was thus independent of the others. But in the face of what seemed to them a common danger, they learnt to act together. "I am not a Virginian," said one, "I am an American." When the Massachusetts Act passed, they all sided with Massachusetts, and called together a General Congress, which met at Philadelphia on September 5, 1774. Every colony, except Georgia, sent representatives.

George Washington, from Virginia, was the leader of the Congress, as he was afterwards the leader of the American army. "Grave and courteous in address, his manners were simple and unpretending, his silence and the serene calmness of his temper, spoke of a perfect self-mastery, but there was little in his outward bearing to reveal the grandeur of soul" or the clear unwavering intellect which made him later the greatest soldier then living in the world, and which also made him the fittest leader of the Congress. It

has been truly said of him, that no nobler figure ever stood in the forefront of a nation's life.

The Congress sat for fifty-one days, and drew up a declaration denying the right of the mother country, to which they yet looked with respect and affection, to tax America. But although respectful, the declaration was firm and decided. Lord Chatham said that its decency, firmness, and wisdom must make men respect its cause and wish to further it.

At the same time the States enrolled militia men to defend their country by force of arms. Early in 1775 there was some fighting between the colonists and the English soldiers. On April 18, the battle of Lexington was fought, and in the June of the same year the battle of Bunker's Hill, near Boston. In the battle of Bunker's Hill, the English troops, under Burgoyne, were successful: the battle of Lexington was indecisive.

The Congress sent a deputation to England, armed with what is known as the "Olive Branch Petition", but it received no answer. War now began in earnest: George Washington was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the American forces, and in March 1776 the English troops were forced to leave Boston. They were, indeed, too few to bring the war to a decisive close, and England was slow in sending out more soldiers.

On July 4, 1776, the day still known as Independence Day, when London children can still see the American flag, with its stars and stripes, hanging from many a house, the Congress of Philadelphia declared

the thirteen colonies to be independent and free states.

Of the war which followed this Declaration, and which had, indeed, already commenced, Sir Edward Creasy, in his book, Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World, says that it was "commenced and carried on by the British Ministry in iniquity and folly, and it was concluded in disaster and shame".

Lord Chatham made some of his finest speeches against the war, and Edmund Burke wrote and spoke against it with all the eloquence he possessed.

In defence, however, of the English Government, it must be remembered that they were new at the art of dealing with their colonies: that they had not yet realized the great responsibility which those colonies brought with them. Contemporary writers tell us that the bills for American taxation excited no interest in England, and very little in the House of Commons.

## Chapter XXIII

#### War in America

ENGLAND, not having a large enough standing army to contend with the Americans, now recruited largely from Germany, and in July 1776 these foreign troops, with what English soldiers could be got together, were landed in New York State. Gilbert White, an author of whom you will hear more, wrote in July 1776 that

as he was at Bramshott on the Portsmouth Road he saw Burgoyne's troops marching by to embark for America. "They all", he wrote, "looked very grave, and did not seem much to admire their destination." They were, indeed, going to fight against men who spoke their own language, and were of their own nationality. It was not a thought calculated to inspire them. But they went and did their duty like brave men.

The English force in America was divided into three: Burgoyne's army occupied the north, with its base near the Lakes Champlain and St. George; Clinton's army was in the south, near New York; Howe's army was in the neighbourhood of Philadelphia.

It was intended that these three should act in concert, and sweep the country free from the insurgents as they marched north, south, and west to meet each other. But the country was so wild, the distances so great, that their task was almost impossible. Washington, too, had his difficulties. His troops were not trained soldiers, and their outfits were insufficient. "2,898 men now in camp are unfit for duty", he wrote, "because they are barefoot. Their marches might be traced by the blood on their feet."

In September 1777 General Howe was successful at the battle of Brandywine, and occupied Philadelphia. In the same month Burgoyne had pushed through uncultivated country, by the Hudson River, to Saratoga. The American army, under General Gates, was about eight miles away. After some fighting on the stormy evening of October 8, Bur-

goyne, who had advanced to meet the enemy, was forced to retreat towards Saratoga.

One incident of the engagement deserves to be remembered. The English general Fraser had been shot. His last wish had been to be buried in the English fortifications, which had been hastily run up between Saratoga and the Americans. These the English were obliged to abandon, but in the solemn twilight of a now quiet October evening, with the enemy's guns playing around his funeral party, his body was taken to the fortifications as he had desired. The English chaplain read the burial service with a steady voice, although cannon balls were falling so close around that they were continually throwing loose earth over the few mourners. But suddenly the enemy's firing ceased. They had become aware that a brave soldier was being laid to rest, and in the gathering darkness of the autumn evening one single cannon, at measured intervals, boomed out the tribute of a gallant enemy to the gallant dead.

Then Burgoyne retreated to the hills above Saratoga. His half-starved, wearied troops behaved as brave men behave. They were courageous, they were patient. Not only the American cannon, but their equally deadly muskets, were continually playing on their camp: an army twice their strength was surrounding them on three sides: provisions were failing.

On the 14th of October Burgoyne sent a messenger under a flag of truce to Gates. After some preliminaries terms were made. The victors were not ungenerous, and agreed that Burgoyne's army should march from camp with all the "honours of war", that is, carrying their arms; that the arms were to be laid down at the word of command from their own officers; that provisions should be supplied to them; and that the treaty made should be known by the more honourable name of the Convention of Saratoga, instead of the Capitulation. Thus did brave men endeavour to soften the distress of a disgrace which they had not caused and could not prevent.

General Gates, indeed, showed himself honourable, and careful of his fallen enemies' best feelings. He would not allow his troops to be present when they piled their arms, and when they marched through the enemy's lines not one disrespectful look or word was seen or heard: only "mute astonishment and pity".

But as has been said, this surrender of thirty-five hundred brave men at Saratoga had greater results than many battles in which thousands have fallen.

It meant the loss of America to England.

Not until December 2 did the first rumour of Burgoyne's capitulation reach England. It was followed by still more important news. France recognized the independence of the American Colonies, and on February 6, 1778, a treaty of alliance between France and America was signed. The English Ambassador was ordered to withdraw from Paris: the French Ambassador left London. War between England and France had once again broken out.

The news of Saratoga was, indeed, a surprise, for the English were not accustomed to such reverses; but it was met in a brave spirit. New regiments were raised and money freely given for their support. In a short time fifteen thousand fresh troops were ready to start for America.

But there was a determined feeling in England that no one but Lord Chatham could guide England at this difficult time. And no one wished more truly to see him at the head of affairs than Lord North, the Prime Minister.

On February 17, 1778, "a day", says Horace Walpole, "of confusion and humiliation that will be remembered as long as the name of England exists", Lord North brought forward two bills. One was a repeal of the American tea duty, and a declaration that, in future, America should only be taxed for her own needs. The second bill gave the king power to appoint Commissioners to treat with the American Colonies.

Burke has described the scene in that old House of Commons. "Astonishment, dejection, and fear", he says, "overclouded the whole assembly." On March 11, however, the king in person gave his assent to the two bills, which had passed both Houses in "sullen silence", and to a third, the Repeal of the Massachusetts Charter Act, which had given such offence in 1774. These Acts are known in history as Lord North's Conciliatory Acts.

But England still wished for Lord Chatham at the head of affairs. In vain, however, did Lord North urge his own retirement from office, and beg the king to appoint Chatham in his place. The king was opposed to both "Chatham and his crew", as he called him and his followers, and he showed himself both courageous and determined. "I am fairly worn down," he wrote on March 18, but added, "I will not change the administration." On April 7, 1778, the Duke of Richmond proposed in the House of Lords that British troops and British ships should be withdrawn from America, and that an honourable peace should be made with it before it was too late.

When the notice of this proposal reached Chatham, he was ill at his country house of Hayes, in Kent. He had been opposed to war with the American Colonies, England's own children. He was willing to give up much to them, but he was not willing to see America helped by France, the enemy against whom he had so long struggled

On the 7th of April, therefore, he appeared in the House of Lords. Dressed in a suit of black velvet, too ill to walk alone, he was supported up the House by his son, William Pitt, and his son-in-law, Lord Mahon.

He spoke as a sick man speaks. He repeated phrases, and did not always recollect what he wished to say. But the old charm and fire were there, and he was listened to with all the old reverence and attention. He wished to rouse Englishmen, in both the old world and the new, to his own sense of the evils of "the dismemberment of this ancient and most glorious monarchy".

"I will never consent", he said, "to deprive the royal offspring of the House of Brunswick, the heirs of

of "—and here, we are told, he hesitated before he could recall the name of her through whom the Stuart line became the line of Brunswick—" the heirs of the Princess Sophia, of their fairest inheritance. My Lords, his Majesty succeeded to an Empire as great as its reputation is unsullied. Shall we tarnish the lustre of that Empire by an ignominious surrender of its rights?—It is impossible. Let us at least make one effort, and if we must fall, fall like men!"

The Duke of Richmond replied. He showed that if England continued the war, she would have not only America, but France and Spain also, in arms against her. But the duke made a noble allusion to Chatham, even while he was opposing his policy. "No one", he said, "had a more grateful memory of the services performed for his country by the noble earl who spoke last. He raised its glory, reputation, and success to a height never before experienced by any other nation. His lordship's name—I beg his pardon for mentioning it—the name of Chatham, will ever be dear to Englishmen; but while I grant this, I am convinced that the name of Chatham is not able to perform impossibilities."

Chatham staggered to his feet to reply, but fell back unconscious. He was carried back to his house at Hayes, where he died on May 11. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, where his monument, paid for by the nation, stands in the north transept.

His name is revered in England. For he loved England passionately, and built up grander schemes for her welfare than any man had built before. He was absolutely free from that vice of corruption, that piling up of money for himself, which had been a blot on too many a statesman of that age. His life had been happy and dignified. He loved pomp and display. It was a time when liveries and carriages, and the like, were far more gorgeous than they are to-day; but Pitt, even in that age of display, was noted for the grandeur of his household. When he went to Richmond to announce to George the Third his accession, men noticed his carriage, with its six horses, his brilliant blue and silver liveries, his many There seemed to some a want of dignified servants. simplicity about all this. It seemed like acting a part, the part, indeed, of a great man, which in truth he was; but he would have been a greater man if he could altogether have forgotten himself. In spite of this littleness, he appealed to what was highest and noblest in men, and Macaulay has truly said of him, "He was the first Englishman of his time, and he had made England the first country in the world ".

## Chapter XXIV

#### Surrender of York Town

MEANWHILE, the war in America dragged on, with little spirit on either side. By 1781 the English had lost everything except York Town, and there Lord Cornwallis was besieged by French and American troops under the French general Lafayette. Corn-

wallis had only about four thousand troops: the allied forces had some sixteen thousand. On the 19th of October, 1781, Cornwallis surrendered.

That surrender has been described by an eyewitness. He saw the united American and French armies drawn up in two lines more than a mile in length, the French on the left, the Americans on the right. He saw the French troops in their smart uniforms march on to the ground with the quick step of French soldiers, their band playing gaily. He saw the American troops in worn garments, and not all indeed in uniform, but soldier-like and dignified, and the vast crowd which had collected to see the ceremony was orderly and dignified too.

At two o'clock the English garrison marched out and passed through the lane of soldiers. It seemed to add to the humiliation of the moment that new uniforms had lately been served out to them, and they bore no stain on them. They carried their arms, and they marched with drums beating to an English tune, but they marched carelessly and as disappointed men. Their own officers gave them the order to ground arms, and they then returned to York Town as prisoners. But Lord Cornwallis bore grateful testimony to the treatment they received after their surrender. He said it was "perfectly good and proper", and he added, "the kindness and attention that has been shown us by the French officers in particular, their delicate sensibility of our situation, and their generous and pressing offer of money, both public and private, to any amount, has really gone beyond what I can

possibly describe". It was the generosity of a nation of soldiers to a brave but unfortunate foe.

The news of the capitulation of York Town reached London in the gloom of a November day. Lord George Germaine carried the news to Lord North. "How did he receive it?" asked a friend. "As he would have taken a cannon-ball in his breast", replied Lord George. "He opened his arms, exclaiming wildly, as he paced up and down the room for a few minutes, 'It is all over!'—words which he repeated many times under the deepest agitation and distress."

All was indeed over, although fighting still went on in places. The capitulation of York Town ended the war in America.

In March 1782 Lord North was permitted by the king to resign, after having held office for twelve years. His farewell to the House was marked by all the happy good taste of his twelve years of office. "No man ever showed more calmness, cheerfulness, and serenity," said one who was present.

He was succeeded by a Whig Ministry, with Lord Rockingham again at its head. Rockingham was in favour of peace, but before it could be arranged, Rodney, the English admiral, won a great victory over the French fleet, under Count de Grasse, in the West Indies. De Grasse fought well, but as evening drew on he had to realize that he was worsted, and with his own hands he hauled down the French flag on his ship, the City of Paris, and surrendered. The battle had begun at seven in the morning on April 12,

and it was, "I believe, the severest ever fought at sea", said Rodney.

Lord Rockingham took office in March 1782. On July 1st of that year he died. He was only fifty-two.

Lord Shelburne succeeded him as Prime Minister. He was a ready debater and a good man of business:

he had much knowledge of foreign politics. But so courteous was he, so apt to say pleasant things to people, and to pay compliments, that he gained the character of being insincere, and he was popular with neither Whigs nor Tories.

During his ministry England acknowledged the independence of the United States, and peace between England and



Lord Rodney.

America and France was arranged. Neither France nor England gained much by this peace, except peace itself.

The king, at the opening of Parliament on December 5, 1782, announced that the preliminaries of the peace had been arranged. He said that in admitting the separation of the colonies of North America from England, he had sacrificed every consideration of his own to the wishes of his people. But he made use of

words on that occasion, the truth of which history has verified: "Religion, language, interest, affection, may, and I hope will," he said, "prove a bond of permanent union between the countries."

On September 3, 1783, peace was signed, but it was not until 1785, for events moved slowly in those days, that the Ambassador to represent the United States arrived in England. He was received by the king



Captain Cook.

on June 1 at St. James's Palace. The king's words, in answer to the Minister's respectful and dignified speech, were dignified and sincere. "I will be very frank with you", he said. "I was the last to consent to the separation; but the separation having been made, and having become inevitable, I have always

said, as I say now, that I would be the first to meet the friendship of the United States as an independent power."

George the Third had often been unwise: he had often strained his power to undue lengths. But no one knew better than he how to give way to the inevitable, and to give way graciously.

So half a continent was lost to England. It had been lost because it was governed on a bad principle because England had not yet learnt her duty towards her colonists. That lesson was indeed learnt and practised nobly in after years. By making the interests of her colonies her own, she has won all that love and respect which at first she seemed to have lost for ever.

While England was losing one continent she was very quietly taking possession of another. In 1770 Captain Cook, before leaving New South Wales, "displayed the English colours and took possession of all the eastern part of the country under the name of New South Wales, for King George". A new continent, Australia, together with New Zealand, had been secured to England.

# Chapter XXV

## Warren Hastings

WE must now turn to Indian affairs once more.

In 1773 Lord North had brought into Parliament a bill known as Lord North's Regulating Act for India. Three presidencies had already been formed by England in India—the Presidencies of Bombay, Madras, and Bengal, with English governors in each. The most important part of Lord North's Regulating Act was the appointment of a Supreme Court of Law for India, on the model of the English Courts of Law, and the appointment of a governor-general of the three presidencies, with a council to assist him.

The first governor-general was Warren Hastings. He was born in 1732 in the little upland village of Churchill, in Oxfordshire, which overlooks a wide tract of beautiful wind-swept lonely country. The house in which he was born is now marked by a tablet, and the country people will still tell you how the boy used to walk along a hilly road which looks towards the beautiful woods of Daylesford, and dream



Warren Hastings.

dreams of his future life. The family of Hastings had once possessed Daylesford, and Warren, whose father was dead, and whose grandfather, a poor country clergyman, had brought him up, early determined he would one day buy back his family inheritance. That determination never wavered. He was sent to school at Westminster, and at

seventeen he went out to India as a clerk in the East India Company's service. Alike when he was a poor clerk and when he was a great ruler, he kept the thought of Daylesford before him: under the dazzling sun of Bengal his mind turned back to the wind-swept uplands of his English home.

Warren Hastings remained in India for fourteen years, working to the best of his ability for the East India Company. After a holiday in England, he applied to them again for an appointment, and the directors, who acknowledged that he had served them with "great ability and unblemished character", gave him a post on the Council of Madras.

When Lord North's Regulating Act came into force in 1775, he was appointed Governor-General of the Bengal Presidency, with control over the two other presidencies of Bombay and Madras. We are told that now, and throughout his life, he was a man of simple habits, dressing plainly, eating but little, and drinking no wine.

He had two difficulties to contend with during his administration in India. He was obliged, or thought he was obliged, to satisfy the demands of the East India Company for money raised by trade in India. He had also to carry on war with the French or with natives, and war is costly. The first Maratha War, a war against the Maratha tribes, who occupied the west of India, went on from 1778 to 1782. The event most remembered in that war is the taking of the rocky fortress of Gwalior, by troops whose feet were wrapped in cotton-wool, so that they might attack it noiselessly. From 1778 to 1784 the first Mysore War also went on. Mysore was a southern state. Haidar Ali, its ruler, ravaged the country stretching from the south of India up to the eastern coast, and known as the Carnatic, as far as Madras. Hastings sent Sir Evre Coote, the victor, twenty years before, of Wandewash, against him, and the battle of Porto Nuovo, on July 1, 1781, saved Madras.

In 1782 brave old Haidar Ali died, and his worth-

less, cruel son, Tipu Sultan, made peace with Hastings in 1784.

Hastings came victoriously through these and other difficulties, and he made many wise and much needed reforms in the administration of British India. He left India in 1785, and on June 13 landed at Plymouth, after an absence from England of fifteen years. That he would receive a peerage as Clive had done, and the thanks of a nation, must have been his expectation.

But he had made an enemy in India named Philip Francis, and Francis had arrived in England before Hastings. He had brought back an exaggerated and distorted account of Hastings's administration. Burke took the matter up. In 1786 it was brought before Parliament. In 1787 Hastings was impeached before the House of Lords: on February 13, 1788, his trial began in Westminster Hall. He was accused of oppression and tyranny, of seizing the money and treasures of native princes, of taking presents and bribes, and of many other acts of corruption.

Lord Macaulay has described the wonderful scene of that trial. Everything combined to make it august and splendid. The peers were there in their state robes of red and of ermine: the judges were there: among the audience were the queen and the Prince of Wales.

Of the appearance of the centre of this gathering, Warren Hastings himself, Lord Macaulay tells us he "looked like a great man, and not like a bad man". His bearing before the court "showed habitual self-possession and self-respect". His face was "worn

and pale, but serene". His defence was a dignified one. "Every division of official business and every department of the Government which now exists in Bengal", he proudly said, "are of my formation." The states over which he ruled were, he declared, "the most flourishing of all the states in India. I made them so. The valour of others acquired, I enlarged and gave shape and consistency to the dominions which you hold there. I preserved it. I gave you all, and you have rewarded me with confiscation, disgrace, and a life of impeachment."

The trial dragged on for eight years. Hastings was at last acquitted, and his remaining days were spent at Daylesford. On August 22, 1818, he died. He was buried in the quiet country churchyard outside the church which he had himself restored. The only inscription on his simple tomb is the words—

#### WARREN HASTINGS.

He was a man of great power, and did much for England and for India. When his downfall came he showed great self-restraint and dignified patience. There was no self-seeking in him. He had been honestly desirous of the welfare of England and to do what he thought his duty towards his employers, although, as he had said, "it was impossible to avoid errors". For himself he seems to have had but one simple ambition—to regain his old family house of Daylesford.

Clive and Hastings had changed the destinies of India. The East India Company had, up to their days, been only a body of traders, jealous of their French rivals in the trade of India, afraid of the native princes, and straining every nerve to send back good profits to the Company. Clive and Hastings had changed this and much else. They had made the East India Company, which represented England to the natives, powerful and rich, possessed of an army, ruler of a vast portion of India, and able to hold its own against any native prince.

# Chapter XXVI

## **England Again**

WE must now return to English home affairs.

In 1780 London was in a state of tumult from the so-called "Gordon Riots", about which we read so much in Charles Dickens's Barnaby Rudge. Two years before, an Act had been passed making some very proper concessions to the Roman Catholies, who for many years had suffered many penalties for adhering to their faith. The penalties, now repealed by what is known as Sir George Savile's Act, were the imprisonment for life of priests for saying mass, the prohibition of Romanists from purchasing land, and the forfeiture of estates to the next Protestant heir if they sent their heirs to be educated abroad. The Act was unpopular among the extreme Protestant section of the people. The old cry of "No Popery" was raised.

Lord George Gordon, an eccentric nobleman, agitated for a repeal of Savile's Act, and his petition for this purpose was signed by nearly 120,000 persons. On June 2, 1780, he marched to Westminster with a mob of 60,000 followers. They pressed into the entrances of the House of Commons, and soldiers were summoned to disperse them. They then turned upon the Roman Catholic chapels, wrecked shops and houses, and finally burnt down Newgate prison.

The riots had begun on June 2. The Government did nothing, and at last on June 8 the king himself summoned a Council. The Council still hesitated to employ troops to quell the riots, and the king, always anxious to act constitutionally, and yet always courageous, asked the Attorney-General if the king and his Council might order out the soldiers. The Attorney-General declared that this was according to law. The military were then called out, and by the next day quiet was restored, and at the expense of much less loss of life than the riots had caused. This speedy conclusion of the riots was due to the king's courage and promptitude.

But although the king often showed both shrewdness and strength of character, he had not the art of ruling or influencing his own children. His eldest son, George Prince of Wales, was a serious grief to the high-minded king. The king, good as he was, had been unwise in his treatment of the young man and his brothers. He had made goodness seem dull to them, and so to escape from a dull court the

princes had made friends with men who led them astray.

The Prince of Wales was deeply in debt, and this much distressed the king, who was scrupulously careful as to money. And to add to the king's displeasure, the prince had joined the opposition,



William Pitt.

that is, the king being opposed to the Whig Party, and the Tories being then in power, the prince joined the Whigs.

However, the prince's debts were paid, and, to outward appearance, father and son were reconciled. But the prince behaved no better than before.

About this time two names became famous in the history of England—William Pitt the younger and Charles James Fox.

The chief mourner at Lord Chatham's funeral in Westminster Abbey, where he was buried "near to the dust of kings", was his second son, who also bore the name of William. He was born at Hayes in Kent in 1759. In 1781 he became Member for Appleby in Westmoreland. In December 1783, when

he was twenty-four years of age, he became Prime Minister of England, and remained so for seventeen years.

William Pitt the younger was one of the finest characters of the eighteenth century. He was perhaps the most distinguished man of the century. A very beautiful portrait of him by the painter Gainsborough is in the National Portrait Gallery in London. He had, said one who knew him, "the most brilliant eyes ever seen in a human face." Men long remembered how he walked up the House of Commons, his quick, firm step, "his head erect and thrown back, looking neither to the right nor to the left," and never by smile or glance noticing any of his friends who sat on the benches of the House, and who would have given much for a greeting from the great man.

When Pitt entered Parliament he was poor, but he never enriched himself by taking any of those posts which, according to the morality of the time, he might have taken, and which would have given him the income he needed. When he first became Prime Minister, a post worth £3,000 a year fell vacant which in this way he might have had. Pitt gave it away, and when men saw that he had no intention of enriching himself at his country's expense, they approved his action. Never from that day till the end of his life could it be said of him that he ever stooped to any manner of corruption or self-seeking. And if he was careless of money, he was indifferent too to titles, or to the Order of the Garter, the most highly prized of all Orders. To lead Parliament for England's

good was the younger Pitt's ambition. "I am no worshipper of Pitt," said Mr. William Wilberforce, "but if I know anything of that great man, I am sure of this, that every other consideration was absorbed in one great ruling passion, the love of his country."

But before we read the history of Pitt's seventeen years of power, we must bring before our minds the character of his great rival, Charles James Fox.

Fox was ten years older than Pitt. He was the son of Henry Fox, Lord Holland. Burke describes him as a man made to be loved, "of the most artless, candid, open, and benevolent disposition, disinterested in the extreme, and without a drop of gall in his whole composition." The portrait of Fox in the National Portrait Gallery agrees with Burke's description. His face is open, artless, almost childish in its sweetness of expression. There was indeed much nobleness in his character, but his bringing up had been bad, and his private life was a wild, disorderly one. He was a brilliant speaker, but was never successful as a politician. If his life had been selfcontrolled, he would have been a greater man than he ever became. He had the making of good in him which never reached perfection.

In 1788 the king again went out of his mind. It was felt that the Prince of Wales must be regent, and he was accordingly appointed. But the king had the advice of Dr. Willis, whose name must always be honourably remembered, as perhaps the first physician who recognized that kindness was a better



Charles James Fox.

cure than the cruelty which was practised in lunatic asylums in those days. Under his care the king got better, and on April 23, 1789, St. George's Day, he publicly returned thanks in St. Paul's Cathedral for his restoration to health.

# Chapter XXVII

#### The French Revolution

The last years of the eighteenth century were startled by the French Revolution and the events which resulted from it.

The King of France at this time was Louis the Sixteenth. He was humane and gentle and anxious to do right, but he was a dull man, and a man of little power. He had been called to rule over France at a time when taxation had become intolerably heavy, and fell on the poor rather than on the rich: a time when the country was deeply in debt owing to the mismanagement of former reigns, and when there was reckless extravagance among many of the rich and dire suffering among the poor. The English traveller, Arthur Young, journeyed through France at the end of the eighteenth century, and he describes the widespread misery of the country. A poor woman to whom he spoke one day seemed to him a picture of that misery. She was not yet thirty. but she looked more than double that age, so bent was her figure and her face so furrowed and hardened by labour. "God send us better times," she said, "for the taxes and the dues crush us."

In 1789 Louis summoned the Parliament of France, known as the States-General, to meet him at

Versailles, outside Paris, where he had a splendid palace. He wanted to consult with them about the money difficulties of the country. They had not met for nearly two hundred years. During that time the government had been carried on by each king in succession, his ministers, and their officials. The people had had no part in it.



Louis XVI.

Louis and his advisers had only thought of money difficulties when they summoned the States-General. But now men who for so long had acquiesced in the state of things in the country, the want of a just government, the unjust taxation and the like, were waking up to a sense that such things ought not to be allowed to go on.

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And so, when the States-General assembled, it gave them an opportunity for speaking out as to this growing discontent. Not only the poor who suffered, but the more thoughtful among the rich who looked on, believed that much was wrong, and wished to set it right if they could. But no one seemed quite to know how to set it right. Many excesses were committed in attempts at reform. One form of government was tried after another. The innocent king was one of the many thousands of victims of the rising of the French nation.

The States-General met at Versailles on May 5, 1789. They consisted of three orders, clergy, nobility, and the elected members, or deputies, who were known as the Third Estate. It had formerly been the custom for each order to sit in a separate chamber, but the Third Estate insisted that all should sit together, formed themselves into the National Assembly, and declared that they would proceed to business without the other two orders unless they would agree to join them. The clergy and nobles then gave way and deliberations began.

It was soon seen that there were three parties in the National Assembly. There were those who wished all the power to be in the hands of the deputies who represented the people, and who were known as democrats: there were those who wished the nobles to retain some of their privileges, and who were known as aristocrats: there were the more extreme democrats known as the Jacobins, because they used to meet at a disused convent belonging to the Jacobin Friars.

The people of Paris were mainly on the side of the democrats, or even the Jacobins. They soon began to declare that the Assembly was not doing enough in its work of reform, and to take the law into their own hands. They hunted down those whom they believed to be aristocrats, and hanged them to the lamp-posts in the streets. They attacked and burnt the prison of the Bastille, where men had been kept for years without trial. Louis feared further violence, and drew the army nearer to Paris, and then the Parisians, excitable and easily moved by rumour, believed that he was going to stop all further reform by force. To withstand this, if necessary, they formed a military force of their own, which they called the National Guard. Its badge was a red, blue, and white cockade. The commander was Lafayette, who, as you remember, took York Town from the English in the American War.

Then it seemed to the people of Paris that the king would be of more use to them, or at least less likely to take part against their reforms, if he were in Paris. In October 1789 a mob of unhappy, half wild people marched out to Versailles, broke into the palace, and brought the king and queen and their children to the Tuileries in Paris, where they were in fact prisoners.

The National Assembly followed the king to Paris. It dissolved itself in 1791, and another governing body, known as the Legislative Assembly, took its place. It was lamentably unfit for its work.

While the mob of Paris had been hunting out aristocrats and hanging or imprisoning them, the peasants in the country had been burning castles and ill-treating their owners.

Many of the French nobles and most of the royal family fled from France and took refuge in Germany. The Parisians believed that they were plotting an invasion of France, and so, when Francis, Emperor of Austria, and Frederic William, King of Prussia, began to move their armies along the Rhine, France declared war on them. The French army was not at first successful, and the disappointed Parisians believed that Louis in his prison palace was plotting with the emigrant nobles and the Germans, and that the failure of the French army was due to him. They stormed the Tuileries, massacred the king's faithful Swiss Guards, and imprisoned the king still more closely in the old palace of the Temple.

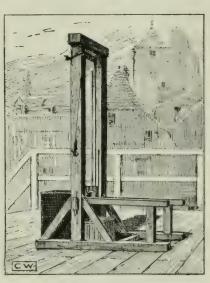
In September 1792 the Legislative Assembly was succeeded by another form of government, the third in three years, known as the National Convention. This Convention deposed the king, and proclaimed France a republic.

The chief leader in the National Convention was the Jacobin Robespierre. The only excuse that can be made for his rule of terror and cruelty is that he was a fanatic in what he thought the cause of liberty. The more moderate party in the Convention, known as the Girondists because many of them came from the Gironde district, could not stay the Jacobins, who went from one excess of cruelty and misgovernment to another. All who were suspected of "conspiracy against the nation" were put in

prison: all who were condemned were put to death by the newly invented machine for beheading, known as the guillotine. On January 21, 1793, only four years after the meeting of the States-General from which he had hoped so much, Louis the Sixteenth was himself

executed in the great square of Paris, now known as the Place de la Concorde. Nine months later the queen also ended the long months of imprisonment, and suffered on the scaffold.

The so-called Reign of Terror and Robespierre's rule followed the execution of the king. The prisons were full of those suspected of conspiring



The Guillotine.

against the nation: the guillotine never ceased its horrible work. Mrs. Ewing's beautiful story of *The Viscount's Friend* tells us of this time, and shows how, in the midst of all its terrors, good men and women yet kept their faith and their courage, and were yet able to think of the miseries of others and not of their own.

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At last it seems as if the Jacobins wearied of bloodshed, and when one member of the Convention denounced Robespierre's cruelties, he was answered with shouts of "Down with the Tyrant!" The reaction spread. Robespierre and some of the leaders of the extreme Jacobins who had condemned so many to the guillotine were themselves guillotined. The prisons were opened: executions ceased.

The Convention remained in power until 1795, but its counsels were guided by more moderate men, and its moderation did not please the still excitable mob of Paris. With the National Guard on their side, they prepared to storm the Tuileries, where the Convention sat. On the side of the mob were 20,000 National Guards: on the side of the Government were only 4,000 infantry soldiers. But the mob had no strong leader, while for the Government a leader was suddenly found. This was Napoleon Buonaparte, a young artillery officer, a Corsican by birth, who had already seen service in the French army. The work of quelling the disturbances was entrusted to He hurriedly brought into Paris a strong force of artillery, stationed them round the Tuileries, and did not hesitate to fire on the mob, who dispersed.

It has been truly said that this "whiff of grapeshot" ended the French Revolution. In a few weeks the Convention was succeeded by yet another form of government, consisting of two councils and a committee of five ministers at their head. This was the fourth form of government since the States-General had met. It was known as the Directory,

# Chapter XXVIII

## Effects of the Revolution in England

The news of the execution of the King of France was received in London with generous sorrow. Theatres were shut, mourning was worn as for England's own king. The English Ambassador was withdrawn from Paris. The French Ambassador was ordered to leave London. The king was greeted, when he appeared in public, with cries of "War with France!"

Many an Englishman who, up to that time, would have welcomed wise reforms in his own country, was now afraid of the very name. The Whigs had at first been in favour of the Revolution, and hoped much from it if wisely directed; but when they saw the course it took, many of them went over to the Tory side. Fox, indeed, still hoped that good would come, but Burke had no such hopes. In 1791 he published his Reflections on the French Revolution, which had a great influence on his countrymen. "Whenever", he said, "a separation is made between liberty and justice, neither is in my opinion safe." He had used all his eloquence to protest in the House against what seemed to him only a terrible evil, even though he felt by doing this he was alienating his Whig friends. "There is no loss of friends," whispered kind-hearted Fox, with the tears running down his

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cheeks, after one of Burke's impassioned speeches. "Yes, yes," said Burke, "there is loss of friends. I know the price of my conduct. I have done my duty at the price of my friend. Our friendship is at an end."

The poet Wordsworth was one of those who had hoped much from the movement in France, but he too was disappointed.

Bliss was it in that dawn to be alive, But to be young was very heaven,

he had written in the opening years of the Revolution. But before long, he too sickened of the horrors which ended what seemed to be the dawn of freedom and good government. "O Liberty!" said a noble woman as she was led out to die in that Revolution, "O Liberty, what crimes are committed in thy name!" She spoke the feeling of many in those few words.

The lawlessness of the methods employed to bring about much-needed reforms made many men hopeless that the end could ever be good. It seemed to them better to bear evils that existed than open the gates to evils like those of the French Revolution. It was not surprising that it did much to stay even needful progress for many years in England. In reading the history of these years we shall see that the effects of the movement in France were overshadowing England.

In 1793 the great war with France began, a war which lasted, with only two short intervals, up to 1815. The war was begun by France, in her deter-

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mination that no power should interfere with her new constitution, and perhaps because the French Government was anxious that the people of France, always eager for military glory, should see that troubles at home had not weakened her fighting power abroad. It was carried on by Napoleon, dreaming not only of a European empire but of a world-wide empire for himself and for France. It was undertaken on England's side with a generous hatred of the Jacobin excesses, and with the old fear of French encroachments on her trade interests. The more immediate reason was that her ally, Holland, was attacked by France.

# Chapter XXIX

#### The Beginning of the Long War

The long war with France has been divided into three periods.

There was, first, the period from 1793 to 1802. which ended with the Treaty of Amiens, and was followed by a few months of peace. There was, secondly, the period from 1803 to 1814, which was largely occupied with fighting in the peninsula of Spain. It ended with the First Peace of Paris. There was, thirdly, the period of one short year, which saw Waterloo, and which ended with the Second Peace of Paris, signed in November 1815.

Very briefly, we will now take the period from 1793 to 1802, in England and abroad.

Pitt determined to carry on the war by sea rather than land. He, however, sent troops, under the Duke of York, the king's second son, to help the Dutch, but by January 1795 the French had possession of Amsterdam, and Holland submitted, and entered into an alliance with France. By 1797 Napoleon had been so successful in his wars on the Continent that Prussia and Austria also came to terms with him, and Spain entered into an alliance with France, as Holland had already done. England was now fighting alone.

The alliance between Holland and France, in 1795, meant that England was at war with Holland, as the ally of France, and this had some important results. The English took the Cape of Good Hope from the Dutch in 1795 (but,had soon to restore it), and took Ceylon from them in 1796, and this she kept. There were three naval battles which must be remembered in our history of these years: a victory in the Channel over the French won by Lord Howe on June 1, 1794, known as the "Glorious First of June"; a victory over the French and Spaniards, off Cape St. Vincent, in 1797; and, later in the same year, the victory over the Dutch off Camperdown.

The year 1797 was, however, a very difficult one for England. At the very time when her safety and a great part of her food supplies depended on her navy, the fleet at Spithead mutinied. They had much to complain of. Their pay was what it had been



Napoleon.

in the seventeenth century, when money went much farther than in the eighteenth. Food was bad, and punishment was excessive.

The Admiralty Office, which had the management of naval affairs, saw that there was justice in these complaints, and granted all reasonable demands. But a month later a more serious mutiny broke out among the ships stationed at the Nore, and the ships with which the English admiral was blockading the Dutch joined in it, so that he had but two ships that were loyal to him. The mutineers at the Nore asked for more than reform in food and pay: they demanded to have a voice in the movement of the ships themselves during action. They were stirred up by a man named Parker, whose head was full of revolutionary ideas learnt from France. But they soon showed that they were loyal at heart, and the mutiny very quickly died out.

In this year, 1797, Napoleon planned an invasion of England, or at least a blockade of her ports, assisted by the combined fleets of Holland, Spain, and France. The battle of Cape St. Vincent frustrated this for the time, and indeed it is not unlikely that these schemes were only at first intended by him to divert men's minds from a much greater scheme which had taken hold of his mind.

He was contemplating, not only the conquest of Egypt and Syria, but even of India. Perhaps even the French people were a little afraid of what their hero would do next, and so they were glad to provide him with a fleet, and send him out to make what



THE PRESS-GANG AT WORK



conquests he could. The French expedition reached Egypt, and overran it. "Soldiers," he said to his men, when they stood beneath the Egyptian Pyramids, which were older than the days of Pharaoh and



Nelson.

of Moses, "Soldiers, forty centuries are looking down on you!" It was one of those many high-sounding sentences with which Napoleon could always appeal to his excitable French army.

But Nelson, England's greatest admiral, whose name still thrills us, followed Napoleon with the English fleet. He came up with the French in Aboukir Bay, near

Alexandria. Nelson, with some of his ships, rounded the French fleet, which was now between the lines of English ships. The battle began at six on an August evening. It raged all night. In the darkness the French admiral's ship, the *Orient*, caught fire and blew up. By morning it was seen that of the thirteen ships which had composed the French fleet, nine had been taken by the English, two had been burnt. The French power in the Mediterranean was broken: Napoleon had no means of return with his army to France.

Fresh heart came to Europe after the battle of the Nile, and Austria and Russia joined England in the Second Coalition against France. The first had been formed in 1793, between England, Spain, Holland, Prussia, and Austria.

In the meantime Napoleon, leaving his army in Egypt, slipped away with a few of his friends, and was soon in Paris. There he found that the Directorate Government was doing little good, and was becoming more unpopular each day. On November 9, 1799, with a few of his soldiers—Napoleon could always find men ready to do his bidding—he turned out the deputies of the Directory from their chamber, much as Cromwell once drove out the Long Parliament from Westminster.

He framed a new constitution, of which he himself, as First Consul, was head. He was now supreme in France. His next move was towards his dream of supremacy outside it. He sent one army to the Rhine to invade Germany: he took another himself to Italy



Map to illustrate Napoleon's Campaigns.

against the Austrians. He defeated the Austrians at Marengo, in June 1800: the army in Germany defeated the Austrians at Hohenlinden a few months later. The English, however, defeated the French army which Napoleon had left in Egypt. The French were forced to leave it, and England restored it to the Turks.

In 1801 Pitt, who had been Prime Minister during all the long years from 1784, the troubled years of the French Revolution and England's wars with France, resigned. In the words of the old song, he had been the pilot that weathered the storm. He brought England through seventeen of the darkest years of her history. He resigned because he could not get Parliament to pass a bill for the relief of the Roman Catholics from the disabilities which pressed so heavily on them.

Mr. Henry Addington, afterwards Lord Sidmouth, succeeded him, and during his administration terms were made with France, and the Treaty of Amiens was signed. England was, by that treaty, allowed to keep Trinidad and Ceylon, but gave up all her other conquests, including the Cape of Good Hope. The treaty was signed in March 1802

# Chapter XXX

#### Death of Pitt

THE Peace of Amiens could not last. Before the ink on the treaty was dry it has been said that Napoleon was again menacing the peace of Europe, sending an army to Switzerland and ordering the republics of Holland and North Italy to place enormous duties on English goods entering their country. These things were irritating to England, and he next irritated her by demands that she would expel the exiled princes of France, who had taken refuge with her, and that the Government would suppress such newspapers as unfavourably criticized his rule. England would do neither of these things, and then Napoleon raked up another cause of offence. Malta had been. by the Treaty of Amiens, given up to its old rulers, the Knights of St. John, but the English still garrisoned it on their behalf

England refused to leave it undefended, and then Napoleon publicly told the English Ambassador at an assembly at the Tuileries that the "English Cabinet had no respect for honour or treaties, and was wishing to drive him to a new war." Addington, the English Prime Minister, tried to make terms, but failed, and on May 12, 1803, the English Ambassador left Paris. War was declared. The peace had lasted a year and a month.

As has been pointed out, we may divide this second period of the war, from 1803 to 1814, into three lesser divisions, which will make its history clearer to us. The first of these divisions is that from 1803 to 1805, when Napoleon was thinking of crushing England by invasion. The second is that from 1805 to 1808, when Napoleon endeavoured to crush England



Martello Tower.

by starving her trade. The third is that of the Peninsular War, from 1808 to 1814.

In the years from 1803 to 1805, our first division, Napoleon was hoping to crush England by invasion. He assembled an army on the French coast, opposite England, ordered new battle-ships, and collected a fleet of flat-bottomed boats, with which to convey his army across the Channel.

From June 1803 to September 1805 that army of invasion remained looking towards England. "The Channel is but a ditch, and any one can cross it who

has the courage to try," Napoleon said. England met all this by building martello watch-towers along her south coast, by forming a strong force of volunteers to help her regular army, by keeping her fleet cruising round her shores, and, not least important, by calling William Pitt back to office.

In 1804 Napoleon's title of First Consul was changed to the prouder one of Emperor. In the spring of



Medal struck by Napoleon to commemorate the Invasion.

the next year, he made a further attempt at the conquest of England. His plan was to draw off the English Channel fleet, which stood between him and England. In order to do this, he sent the French and Spanish fleets towards the English West Indies, as if they meant to attack them. Nelson went after them across the Atlantic, and at once the French admiral turned back to Brest. He had led the English fleet far from England, and thought the way was now clear for invasion. But the English Admiralty got news of the tactics of the French fleet, and at once

sent out another and smaller fleet, which caught the French in the Bay of Biscay, where the battle of Finisterre was fought. The battle was indeed indecisive, but Nelson by this time was back in European waters, and the Franco-Spanish fleet had to put in to Cadiz to refit.

Napoleon then gave up his plan of an invasion of England, and went towards Germany to attack the Austrians and Bavarians, taking with him the army with which he had planned to invade England. He left a scathing letter for his French admiral who had been so unsuccessful off Cape Finisterre.

The admiral, anxious to regain his laurels, came out of Cadiz to fight Nelson. On the 20th of October, 1805, the combined Spanish and French fleets attacked the English fleet. Nelson ran up his famous signal before the battle, "England expects every man will do his duty". It was saluted by three cheers from every English ship. The battle resulted in a great victory for England, but Nelson was mortally wounded on board the *Victory*, and died as the last English guns were fired at the retreating enemy's ships.

Many relics of Nelson's are to be seen at the Royal Naval Hospital at Greenwich. The coat which he wore at Trafalgar is among them. He was buried in St. Paul's Cathedral.

In August 1805, as we have read, Napoleon had taken his "Army of England" away towards Austria, and on October 19, 1805, the Austrian general Mack surrendered to him at Ulm. The news reached Pitt in London on November 3rd, so slowly did news

then travel. "I observed too clearly the effect it had on Pitt," said a witness, "though he did his utmost to conceal it." Even Pitt was beginning to fear Napoleon.



The Victory.

On the 2nd of December the battle of Austerlitz was fought in Moravia, between the French and the allied Austrian and Russian armies. It was a terrific battle, lasting from dawn to sunset, and fought amid bitter weather, and snow and ice. It was followed by

the Treaty of Presburg, in which Austria laid down arms. By this treaty, the Emperor of Austria resigned the old title of Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, a title which had been in the Austrian house of Hapsburg for three hundred and more years.

Men said that Austerlitz killed Pitt. On the day after the news of Trafalgar, he had dined at the Guildhall, and the people had drawn his carriage in triumph through the streets. He was still the pilot who they believed would weather this fresh storm of Napoleon's successes. At the banquet he was greeted as the man who had saved Europe. His reply was only this: "I return you many thanks for the honour you have done me. But Europe is not saved by any single man. England has saved herself by her exertions, and will, I trust, save Europe by her example."

It was his last public utterance. The news of Napoleon's victory reached Pitt at Bath, at the end of December. He went back very ill to his home at Putney. The news of his illness was received in the House of Commons in respectful and mournful silence. Early in the morning of January 23, 1806, he died.

He was buried at Westminster Abbey, by his father's grave.

England seemed to have no great man to oppose Napoleon, now that Pitt was gone. A Ministry was formed, called the Ministry of all the Talents, because men of all parties were included in it. Lord Grenville was nominal Prime Minister.

In September 1806 Fox died, and was buried near his political rival, Pitt, in Westminster Abbey.

The mighty chiefs sleep side by side. Drop upon Fox's grave the tear, 'Twill trickle to his rival's bier.

Fox was a man of a generous heart spoilt by an ill life. His last work in Parliament was some resolutions against the slave trade, and this is pleasant to remember by all who would rather think of a man's best actions than his worst.

# Chapter XXXI

#### The War in the Peninsula

We have now considered the period when Napoleon was hoping to crush England by invasion. It was followed by the period when he was trying to crush her by starving her trade. In 1806 he issued the famous Decrees of Berlin. They declared that France and her allies must not trade with England: that all property in a state occupied by French troops was forfeited to the French state: that all Englishmen in a state occupied by French troops were prisoners of war.

But England was not to be frightened by her imperious neighbour at Paris. The Orders in Council were England's reply to the Decrees of Berlin. They stopped all trade with French ports or ports occupied

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by French troops. And in the year of the Orders in Council, 1807, when England might seem to be crushed by the loss of her greatest man, and by the wars of the last few years, she was occupied by the passing of the Act for the Abolition of the Slave Trade. and by a bill, which did not pass, for allowing officers in the army and navy freedom to attend the services of their religion, whether Roman Catholics or Noncon-The king, from conscientious motives, was opposed to the bill for removing the disabilities of the Roman Catholics, as he had been to Pitt's Catholic Relief Bill of 1801, and the bill caused the fall of the Grenville Ministry, as in 1801 a similar bill had caused the fall of Pitt's first ministry. A Tory ministry, under the Duke of Portland, succeeded the ministry of "The Talents".

In 1808 the third period into which we divided the years from 1803 to 1814 begins. Up to this time England's policy had been defensive rather than offensive. She had given help to foreign powers in their war against Napoleon; she had defended her own shores, and her trade, with her navy. Now she was going to meet France in a hand-to-hand struggle.

Napoleon had, in 1808, made his brother Joseph king of Spain, but the Spaniards rose against the French and their new king, and asked help from England. Sir Arthur Wellesley was sent to Portugal with English troops, intending to dislodge the French from that portion of the Peninsula. His first victory was Vimiero, and the French general Junot, by the Convention of Cintra, evacuated Portugal.

Napoleon sent an army, his victorious army of Austerlitz, to remedy this disaster. "Comrades," he said to them, "after triumphing on the banks of the Danube and the Vistula, with rapid steps

you have passed through Germany. This day, without amoment's repose, I command you totraverse France. Let us bear our triumphant eagles to the Pillars of Hercules."

The French overran northern and central Spain, and on December 4, 1808, they entered Madrid. Sir John Moore, who was now in command of the English troops in Por-



Sir John Moore.

tugal, was obliged to retreat through the frost and snow of winter to Corunna, where he defeated the French army, under Soult, which had followed him. The gallant Sir John Moore was killed in the action, and his death is remembered from the wellknown poem beginning-

Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note.

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Very briefly we must name the chief battles of the Peninsular War. Soldiers' children may see the names



Regimental Colours in St. Paul's Cathedral.

of some of them on the regimental colours hung up in some cathedral or church; may see the very colours, now faded and worn, that were carried in some of these battles. Most of these battles were fought and won by Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, and the hero of Waterloo. "The sight of his long nose on a battle morning was worth ten

thousand men", wrote one who fought under him in many a battle.

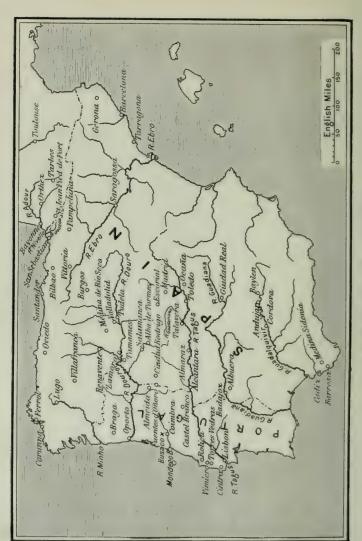
In 1809 Wellesley won the victories of Oporto and Talavera: in 1810 he was successful on "Grim Busaco's iron ridge", near the celebrated fortifications known as the Lines of Torres Vedras, which he had constructed across the peninsula on which Lisbon stands. After Busaco Wellesley.



The Duke of Wellington.

now Lord Wellington, retired behind these fortifications for the winter of 1810-11. When winter was over there were more victories—Fuentes d'Onoro. Albuera, and in January 1812 Ciudad Rodrigo.

Then came Badajos and Salamanca, a battle in which it was said Wellesley beat 40,000 men in forty minutes. Vittoria and the Pyrenees followed, and by September 1813 he was on the frontiers of France. But there were two battles yet to be fought, and they on French ground, Orthez and Toulouse, and in both Wellesley was victorious.



Map to illustrate the Peninsular War.

While the English general was winning battles, Napoleon had been fighting too and making all the world wonder.

It will not be necessary to read of all those battles, nor of all the European capitals into which Napoleon marched as conqueror, nor to tell of all the changes which his wars made in the map of Europe. His Russian campaign of 1812 must indeed be mentioned.

In that year, with what is known as the Grand Army, he went towards Russia, and after fighting the awful battle of Borodino, in which it is said ninety thousand men were slain, he went on towards Moscow. But the Russians had deserted it. The conqueror found only an empty city, and, in a few days after he entered, the whole was burnt, whether by the French or the Russians none could tell. Winter was coming, and all that could be done was to retreat. That retreat of the Grand Army from Moscow is one of the saddest stories in history. Cold, snow, starvation fought against it, and not a tenth of the gallant men who had set out reached Germany alive.

This closes the third period of the war from 1802 to 1814. The next period is that of WATERLOO.

# Chapter XXXII

#### Waterloo

ONE French army had been destroyed by the Russian winter, but in the spring of 1813 Napoleon got together another army and went to Germany. Austria, Prussia, Russia, and Sweden were now allied against him. He won some battles, but was defeated in the three days' battle of Leipzig on October 16 to 19, 1813. This Battle of the Nations, as it has been called, forced the French to retreat across the Rhine into their own country.

The allied armies followed them, and for some months fighting took place on French ground. But Napoleon could not fight against all Europe. He was defeated little by little, and on March 31, 1814, the allied armies entered Paris in triumph.

Napoleon meanwhile was at Fontainebleau. On April 14, 1814, he abdicated. An English ship conveyed him to the island of Elba, in the Mediterranean. The English sailors, it was said, "wished his honour long life and better luck the next time", as he parted from them.

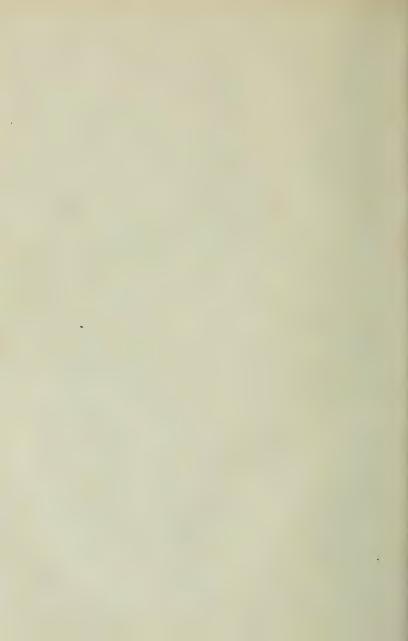
"It must be confessed", said the conqueror of Europe, as he looked over the little island from one of its hills, "my island is very small." He who had dreamed of an empire stretching from the Atlantic to India was now confined within a few miles of territory.



MILITARY UNIFORMS IN 1815. KING'S DRAGOON GUARDS.

86TH FOOT REGIMENT.

42ND ROYAL HIGHLAND REGIMENT.



The Allies left France free to choose her own form of government, and they wished for a monarchy once more. The son of Louis the Sixteenth had died in prison, and so the king's brother, Louis the Eighteenth, succeeded him.

The First Peace of Paris was signed by the Allies, the parties being France, Austria, England, Prussia, and Russia, in April 1814, and later a congress was held at Vienna to apportion out Napoleon's spoils. For eleven months there was peace in Europe.

Then suddenly came the news that on February 26, 1815, Napoleon had escaped from Elba, and was in France. The congress was still sitting in Vienna, dividing up his conquests among the nations. It is said that when the news reached the ambassadors where they sat gravely debating, they greeted it with an irrepressible burst of laughter! Napoleon was indeed always surprising men.

The army came round him once more, and Louis fled from Paris. By March 20 Napoleon was again at the Tuileries as emperor. This new period of his history is known as the Hundred Days. It began on March 13, when at Lyons he had announced himself once more as head of the Government of France.

Wellington was sent to Brussels in command of an army of English, Dutch, Belgians, and Germans. The Prussian army was commanded by Marshal Blucher. These combined armies were far larger than Napoleon's one army, but his plan was to meet one of them at a time and defeat each in turn. He marched rapidly into Belgium, and was successful against Blucher at Ligny.

The Prussian army was encamped round the towns of Liège, Namur, and Charleroi. The English allies were near Brussels and Ghent. Napoleon's object



Blucher.

was to get between these two armies and prevent them joining forces against him.

After some preliminary engagements. Napoleon met the English and allied forces under Wellington near the village of Waterloo. The night of June 17 had been wet and stormy, and the eighteenth broke in rain, and not until nearly twelve was the ground sufficiently free from wet to enable the artillery to move. The battle was fought all through that day. In the afternoon the Prussian troops under Blucher, Marshal Forwards as his soldiers fondly called him, were seen approaching, and this was the turning-point of what at first seemed a doubtful battle. But the summer twilight had faded in the sky before the battle was over. The brave French army was in flight. Napoleon's sun had set for ever. Wellington was the victor of Waterloo.

That great general felt as a great and good man must feel after a battle. We are told that, with the dust and heat of the battle yet on his face as he read the list of his losses, the tears made channels down his blackened cheeks. "Thank God," he said, "I don't know what it is to lose a battle, but certainly nothing can be more painful than to gain one with the loss of so many of one's friends." Many a brave man, indeed, fell there on either side.

The news of Waterloo was received in England with wild rejoicings. There were no telegrams then. The coaches, decorated with laurels, took the tidings from one end of England to another in those June days.

For it meant so much. With Napoleon triumphant no country in Europe was safe. He had, as was said in the English House of Commons after his escape from Elba in 1815, spread desolation from Cadiz to Moscow, from Naples to Copenhagen. A map of Europe in 1810, when he was at the height of his power, showed that the French empire stretched from the Pyrenees to the Elbe, from the sea-coast of

France on the west almost to Naples in Italy: that the kingdoms of Italy and Naples and the Illyrian provinces was under his rule: that Bavaria, Switzerland, the duchy of Warsaw, and the vast territory of the Confederation of the Rhine had been dominated by him. Waterloo saw the deliverance of Europe from the oppression of Napoleon.

Napoleon had done much, we must, however, remember, for the welfare of France. Agriculture, commerce, manufactures, finance, education, great public works, such as the great road from Italy to France through Switzerland over the Simplon, show what he could do. His civil code, a collection of laws which cost three years of labour, was a gigantic work. Justice was by it administered on true principles of justice: "I shall go down to posterity", he proudly said, "with the code in my hand." And his genius showed itself in the fact that all these matters were personally superintended by himself. But his ambition was his ruin.

The remainder of Napoleon's career is soon told: he escaped after Waterloo and surrendered to the English. He was sent to the island of St. Helena, and died there in May 1821. His tomb is in the great Church of the Invalides, at Paris, where he desired to be laid among the "people of France whom he had so much loved". Over that tomb wave some of the tattered banners which he took in his great wars.

In November 1815 the Second Peace of Paris was signed between France and the Allies.

# Chapter XXXIII

## Last Years of the Reign of George the Third

In 1809 the Tory Ministry of Mr. Spencer Perceval succeeded the Tory Ministry of the Duke of Portland. Mr. Perceval was assassinated at the door of the old House of Commons by a lunatic in 1812. He was succeeded by Lord Liverpool, with another Tory Ministry.

In 1810 the king, after some short temporary attacks of insanity, became hopelessly mad, and never recovered. The Prince of Wales became regent, under the title of Prince Regent.

We have read of the Orders in Council. They were England's courageous reply in 1807 to Napoleon's Berlin Decrees. The United States of America had found that these Orders damaged their trade, and in 1812 they declared war on England, and invaded England's colony of Canada.

England could do little to help her brethren in Canada as long as the Peninsular War went on. But the Canadians fought with great bravery; they were determined to remain part of the British empire. The American navy showed itself capable and warlike, and Englishmen felt it to be a disgrace to them that on three occasions American ships captured English ones. However, the Treaty of Ghent, in

1814, made peace between England and America. Neither country gained anything by the war.

After the French wars there was a time of great distress in England. The return of so many soldiers added to the number of the unemployed, which was already great, because the invention of machinery, so excellent in itself, had thrown many men out of work. Fewer hands were needed when machinery did the work of many, and so it was that the country seemed full of discharged soldiers and workmen without employment. Bad harvests too had made bread dear. It was indeed a dark and difficult time in England's history, but better times soon came.

From the year 1811 to 1820 George Prince of Wales was regent. In 1795 he had married Caroline, a princess of Brunswick. They had one daughter, the Princess Charlotte of Wales, as she was called. To her all England looked, as one who would make a good queen when she came to the throne, to which she was heir after her father. She was a high-spirited, clever girl, and when in 1816 she married Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, a prince whose character was as high and hopeful as hers, England was still more pleased. But these hopes were not to be realized. On November 6, 1817, Princess Charlotte died. She was only twenty-one years old.

The heirs to the crown of England after the Prince Regent, who was already aged and ill, were his six brothers, all of whom were men over forty years of age. In 1818, however, one of these, Edward Duke of Kent, married Princess Victoria of Saxe-Coburg, and in 1819, to the great joy of England, they had a daughter, who was destined as Queen Victoria to win back all the loyalty and respect which the Prince Regent had lost by his misdoings.

On January 29, 1820, the good old king, George the Third, died at Windsor, in his eighty-second year. He was a man of high moral integrity, of courage, and of good sense. He could honourably give way when public need required that his private feelings should be forgotten. His courage was unfailing. During the Gordon Riots he alone acted promptly and wisely. He showed himself to be a man of real intelligence, and of ability to see into men and things. Above all, he was a truly religious man. "One is supposing that, and another is proposing this," he once said, in a moment of great danger to himself, in which he had been calm and unmoved, "forgetting that there is One above everything, who disposes all things."

The reign of George the Third had seen England almost continually at war with France. Those wars ended at Waterloo, and the end found England supreme at sea, and the greatest colonial power in the world.

These wars cost more than any war that England had yet waged. She had not only to keep up her enormous fleet and the armies which fought in Spain and Portugal, but she had to pay subsidies to her allies. The National Debt reached the stupendous sum of nine hundred million pounds. But enormous as the expense had been, England could meet it. Her

Windsor Castle.

money resources had been strained by war; there was suffering at home from the new industrial methods. And yet her trade and her manufacture, her new industrial life, were enriching her in spite of the strain. Napoleon had, in derision, called her people a nation of shopkeepers. He had seen that her trade was her strength. But though he had used all his efforts to destroy that trade, England at the end of the war held it against all the world. Her history abroad had been glorious. Her greatness as a power among the nations was established.

# Chapter XXXIV

## Social Progress in England during the Reign of George the Third

WHILE the history of England had been glorious abroad, there was much in the home life of the country which could be no cause of satisfaction to thoughtful men. We have already learnt that much distress followed the introduction of machinery. That machinery was indeed enriching England, but the profits came first only to the owners of the machinery, and the few hands who could work that machinery, while it turned thousands out of work, and made them poor with a poverty which had been unknown in the days of the Stuarts, or of the first two Georges.

Another cause contributed to the distress among the poor. There were bad harvests, and the Corn Laws

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prevented foreign wheat coming into the country until home-grown wheat had reached a very high price, and this made bread dear. Further, the laws for the relief of the poor, the Poor Laws as they are called, instead of helping matters, made them worse.

The parishes gave relief out of the rates, without inquiring whether those to whom they gave them were infirm, or able-bodied, or idle. This kept down the rate of wages in the agricultural districts, and raised the rates, and only increased the poverty it was meant to help.

Distress was therefore widespread among the poor, in town and in country, and there was naturally widespread discontent in "a multitude feeling its poverty, but not understanding its cause, and ready to seek any scheme of redress, wise or unwise". The Government, on the other hand, with the example of the late troubles in France fresh in their minds, feared as yet to move, and we must wait for the two later reigns, of which we shall next read, to see what efforts were made towards wise reforms.

We must not forget, however, that during the long reign which had just closed many good men were trying to improve social matters in England, and to make it a better place than they found it. In the words of the eighteenth-century poet, William Blake, their cry was:

I will not cease from mortal fight, Nor shall my sword sleep in my hand, Till we have built Jerusalem In England's green and pleasant land.

One matter which needed attention was the education of the children of the poor. Very few could read: very few could do more than put a cross instead of signing their names. Hannah More, a good lady who did much to help her poorer neighbours, wrote that in Cheddar village she found but one Bible in all the parish, and that was used to prop a flower-pot. The first attempt to meet this want of education was the institution of Sunday Schools, in which not only religious instruction was given, but reading and writing were also taught. In 1780, Robert Raikes started a Sunday School at Gloucester, which was so successful that Sunday Schools were opened by good people all over the country, and very soon it was estimated that as many as 200,000 children were attending them.

Prisons were in a very bad state at this time. When people had done wrong, the only idea seemed to be to punish them without endeavouring to make them better. And the prisons were so badly managed that, far from making men better, they made them infinitely worse. The man who did most to bring about a much needed reform in prisons was John Howard, of Cardington, near Bedford. In 1773 he became High Sheriff of Bedfordshire, and was then brought face to face with all the faults of the prison administration. In a year after his taking office he had been nearly all over England, inspecting gaols.

We will take his description of Gloucester gaol, not only because in its filth and degradation it represents the condition of most of those which he visited, but

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because there he had the help of Robert Raikes. He describes the room in which the men prisoners were herded together at night as close and dark, and the floor so uneven that it could never be washed. "In September," wrote Howard, "the felons were



John Howard.

very pitiable objects indeed, half naked and almost famished." For, incredible as it seems, no allowance for food was made, but the prisoners were permitted to beg at the prison gates. "Remember the poor prisoners!" was a well-known appeal to the charitable. "But in December," Howard goes on, "their appearance

was much altered. Mr. Raikes and other gentlemen took pity on them, and generously contributed towards the feeding and clothing them. Mr. Raikes continues his unremitting attention to the prisoners."

Not only did Howard visit English prisons, and get two bills passed for their reform: he also travelled over Europe, to inquire into the state of prisons abroad. He died in 1790, at Cherson, in Russia. He wished to be buried where he died, "and let me be forgotten", he said. But his name lives on, as that of a man who gave his life remedying a great evil.

In 1807, the year in which the Orders in Council had been England's undaunted reply to Napoleon's Berlin Decrees, the infamous traffic in slaves from Africa to the English colonies in America was abolished. This measure was due to the unremitting labours of Thomas Clarkson.



Wilberforce.

Zachary Macaulay, and still more, of William Wilberforce, who never spared himself in his efforts for the cause of his life.

In 1814 England again interfered to stop another slave trade. The Mohammedan North African States of Algiers, Tripoli, and Tunis had been in the habit of sending boats to cruise in the Mediterranean, and to take any European vessels they could, and to make slaves of their crews. The Congress of Vienna determined in 1814 to stop this trade, The Deys, as the rulers of Tunis were called, agreed to set free their

captives, who had been taken in this way; but the Dey, or ruler, of Algiers asked for time to consider it. During this delay some of the Algerian pirates massacred some Italian fishermen. Lord Exmouth. the English admiral, sailed for Algiers, and demanded that the Dey should conform to the terms of the Congress. No answer was sent, and Lord Exmouth bombarded Algiers. The Dey gave way, the Christian slaves were released, and peace was signed on August 30, 1816, three days after the bombardment of the town.

In these and in other ways men were trying to reform abuses. There were also improvements in other matters. With the reign of George the Third, increased interest in agriculture had been shown. The king himself had farms at Richmond and Windsor, and was fondly known by his people as "Farmer George". He even wrote in an agricultural journal, under the name of Ralph Robinson, and the fact that agriculture had a journal to itself in those days of few magazines is a proof of the increasing interest in it.

But in spite of improvements, vast tracts of country were still uncultivated, and agricultural implements were few and rude. Threshing and reaping machines were unknown. The corn was sown broadcast by the hand. The wheat was threshed by flails, in the great barns of the farmhouses. Much of the ploughing was still done by oxen instead of horses, and indeed children in Sussex and Gloucestershire can still see teams of oxen at the plough. But one pleasant homely fashion prevailed still in the farms. The farm



Street Scene in Algiers.

servants often lived in farm-houses with the master and mistress, and sat with them at the long oak table, where wholesome food was plentiful, and at night sat together, and shared the wood fire, which burnt on the low spacious hearth.

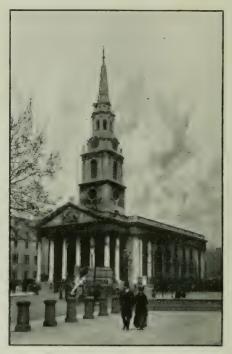
Fashions in architecture had been changing since the days when the beautiful old timber houses, such as those still standing in Holborn, had made London such a picturesque place. London children can still see many examples of plainer, but still beautiful house architecture, which succeeded these. Rows of straight brick or stone houses, built in the reign of George the Third, with tall sashed windows, an elaborate canopy over the doorway, and very fine iron railings protecting the areas, are to be seen in many parts of London. Many churches, too, such as that of St. Martin, Trafalgar Square, still exist to show us that, in the reign of George the Third, men were imitating old Greek and Roman models in their architecture, and were producing fine buildings.

At the beginning of the reign of George the Third, costumes had been far from beautiful. Large hoops were still worn, and the colours of the materials were gaudy. Even men wore coloured suits-red or blue, or plum colour, or green, plentifully trimmed with gold and silver or coloured braids. But after a while two circumstances led people to see that greater simplicity in dress was much more beautiful. One of these was the influence of the great portrait painters, Thomas Gainsborough and Sir Joshua Reynolds. When they painted portraits of fashionable ladies, in

Hanover Square, 1787.

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their extravagant dresses, they left out the absurdities, and this taught people better taste. And the terrible French Revolution, of which we have read, taught



St. Martin's Church, Trafalgar Square.

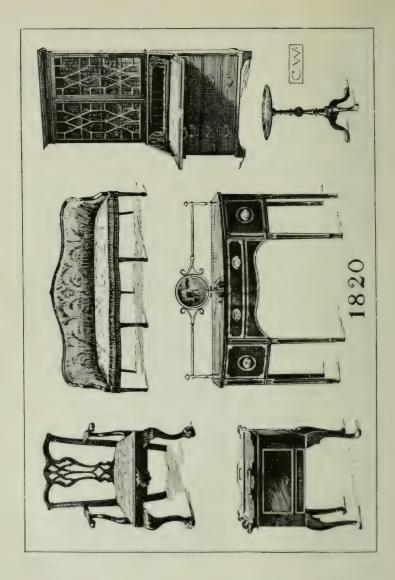
simplicity too. The great French painter, David, did much to make simple dresses fashionable in Paris, as Reynolds and Gainsborough had done in England. Ladies dressed their hair simply, after the old Greek

fashion, and wore long flowing gowns of soft materials. Men discarded bright colours; a blue cloth coat took the place of coloured silks and velvets, and by the end of George the Third's reign dress was very much nearer what it now is.

Uniform in the army was very different from that of our own days. It was tight and stiff, with stiff black stocks round the neck. Soldiers went into action as if going on parade, in their red coats, the band playing, and the regimental colour, and the king's colour, carried by the two young ensigns, who were generally the first to be shot.

Newspapers had developed much during the reign of George the Third. They had been few and insignificant in 1760: by 1820 they much more nearly resembled those of the present day. Much of the history of the day is learnt from these old newspapers. News from abroad was, of course, still slow in reaching England, when there were no trains and no telegrams. The Battle of the Nile, for instance, was fought on August 1: the news only appeared in The Times on October 3rd. It was brought by hand by one of Nelson's officers, and the paper tells us, just as a modern paper would do, how the news was received in London, how the guns at the Tower and in the parks were fired, how the bells rang from the churches, how the people sang "Rule Britannia" in the theatres until they were hoarse.

Throughout the wars of the eighteenth century the navy had saved England, and it was not surprising that England loved her navy and her wooden ships,



with their tall masts and their vast sails. These old ships were far more beautiful objects than the battleships or steamers of to-day, but they were much more easily destroyed.

No history of these times would be complete without some notice of the great and good Samuel Johnson,

who was born in 1709, in the reign of Queen Anne, and died in 1784. He was the son of a bookseller at Lichfield. fought his way upwards in the world by his intellect and his real worth. In spite of poverty, in spite of his ungainly figure, his strange manners, and hisimpatience



Dr. Johnson.

of all opposition, it is not too much to say that he was one of the greatest men of his day, and one of the most beloved. Although his intellect was so great and his learning so deep, his heart was the heart of a little child. It was told of him that when he was staying in a country house the gardener caught a hare in the potatoes, and it was ordered to be killed. Johnson asked to have it in his hands. He took it to the window, let it loose and hurried its escape.

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His whole life was as kindly as this one act. He gave a home to many a strange inmate whose society must have been wearisome to him. He compiled a famous dictionary, and wrote poems, essays, and the lives of the poets.

Johnson's friends were many and distinguished. To read their names is to read the names of all who were most celebrated in the England of his day. There was Oliver Goldsmith, the Irish author, who wrote the beautiful story of *The Vicar of Wakefield*, and the no less beautiful poems of *The Deserted Village* and *The Traveller*. There was Edmund Burke, the generous-hearted enthusiastic statesman, always

Too fond of the right to pursue the expedient.

There was David Garrick, the greatest actor of the age, or perhaps of any age, who, besides his power as an actor, was called by Goldsmith, in laughing reference to his short stature and his amiable character,

An abridgement of all that was pleasant in man.

There was the great painter, Sir Joshua Reynolds, whose portraits are among the treasures of our galleries.

These and many other great and good men were the intimate friends of Dr. Johnson. And he had the happiness to have one friend, James Boswell, a Scotsman, who has preserved for us many of his sayings, and has written his biography, the best biography that ever has been written. There we can meet Johnson as if he were still alive: we can see his kindness of heart, his extraordinary intellectual powers, his determined Toryism, his loud laugh—" he

laughs like a rhinoceros", said one of his friends—his love of tea—for he drank, it was said, twenty-five cups in succession—his enormous appetite, his uncouth gestures, his untidy dress. People would run to stare

at the great writer, and would see him come out of his house in the Temple, to hand some great lady to her carriage, "dressed in rusty brown, with a pair of old shoes for slippers, a shrivelled wig on the top of his head". Few men who have reached distinction by their intellect and their writings alone are still so much remembered, still so well



Sir Joshua Reynolds.

beloved, and even Johnson would not have held his great place but for the reports of his wise and witty talk faithfully recorded by Boswell.

Up to 1771, reporting and publishing of Parliamentary debates in the newspapers had been forbidden, as a breach of the privileges of the House. The printer of the *London Evening Mail* was arrested

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in that year for publishing debates, but by the next session of Parliament men had grown wiser. No further objection was made, and the reports were henceforth printed. It was a gain to the country in many ways. People knew what their representatives in Parliament were saying, and the work that Parliament was doing for them. Dr. Samuel Johnson wrote many reports of Parliamentary debates.

We must not forget one great discovery of the eighteenth century. In 1739 the possibility of extracting gas from coal was discovered, but not until 1792 did a gentleman in Cornwall apply it to purposes of lighting. Then it was adopted in a Birmingham foundry; in 1809 Pall Mall was lighted by it, and by 1820 almost the whole of London was lighted by gas.

Up to the end of the eighteenth century, when a light was needed, people had to strike a flint and steel together, and the spark fell on dry tinder, which ignited. It was a slow and difficult method of getting a light on a cold winter morning. But about the beginning of the nineteenth century, matches were invented, and now it is difficult for us to imagine what life would be without them.

# Reign of George IV

## Chapter XXXV

### George the Fourth

GEORGE THE FOURTH was fifty-eight years of age when he ascended the throne. During his father's blindness and insanity he had acted as Regent, and the ten years from 1810 to 1820 are known in English history as the years of the Regency.

As a young man, George had been good-looking, with fair hair and a pleasant face. His abilities were good, and he had received an excellent education. When he wished, he could assume very courtly and dignified manners, which earned for him the title of the First Gentleman in Europe. He had a kind heart, but he was weak and selfish, and he let a careless, irreligious world spoil a not naturally bad disposition. Unworthy friends combined with his own thoughtlessness to lead him astray. Before he was thirty, his reckless extravagance was a grief to all good men, and especially to his father. As early as 1794, his debts amounted to £700,000.

In 1795 he married his cousin, Princess Caroline of Brunswick. The marriage was not a happy one. The princess was a good-hearted, affectionate girl, but she

was wild and flighty, and had not the dignity and self-control which was expected of one in her position. The prince was indifferent to her, and as selfish in his conduct to his wife as he was to the rest of the world.



George IV.

Their one daughter, Princess Charlotte, died in 1817.

On the prince's accession to the throne, in 1820. the princess, now Queen Caroline, returned to England. She was greeted on her arrival with much kindliness by the people, who, whatever her faults might be, looked on her as an injured woman. But the king took no notice of her coming.

Her conduct had, however, been represented as so unworthy of her high position, that a Committee of Peers was appointed to inquire into it. They were occupied for some weeks in hearing the charges against her, but in the autumn of 1820 the matter was allowed to drop. Public opinion was indeed divided. The great and good William Wilberforce, though with all his heart he de-

plored what had been, or seemed to be, wrong in her conduct, said he "could not help admiring her spirit".

When the proposed bill against the queen was dropped, in the autumn of 1820, London was illuminated, to show its sympathy with her, and whenever she appeared she was greeted with cheering. But when, in July 1821, the king's coronation was to take place, the queen was refused a share in it, or even a place in Westminster Abbey. This was on July 19, 1821. On August 7 of the same year she died. She desired to be buried in her own home of Brunswick, with the words, "Here lies Caroline, the injured Queen of England", placed over her. The funeral procession through London to Harwich was the cause of tumults on the part of the people, who resented the want of respect shown to their queen, even in the arrangements for her funeral.

After the coronation, the king went to pay a visit to Ireland. The news of the queen's illness reached him at Holyhead, and he paid her at least this respect, that he remained there until after her death. But he then went on to Ireland, where he was well received, and Kingstown was named after him. In August 1822 he paid a visit to Scotland. But after these two visits he was little seen or heard of. For the last years of his life he lived chiefly at the strange, grotesque building known as the Pavilion, which is still standing at Brighton, or at the so-called Cottage near Windsor. His influence in England was gone long before his death. History has few more sad examples of a man who might have been great, but who, by his

own fault, lost all the love and respect and influence which he would have had if he had been a better man.

That which should accompany old age, As honour, love, obedience, troops of friends, He could not look to have.



The Pavilion at Brighton.

## Chapter XXXVI

### The Prime Ministers of George the Fourth

The reign of George the Fourth only lasted for ten years. When he came to the throne, Lord Liverpool was Prime Minister. We must remember Liverpool as a safe and respected leader of his country, during the difficult years of distress from 1812 to 1827. He was not indeed a brilliant man, nor a man whose name is great in England, as are the names of Walpole and Pitt. But he was impartial and, it has been said, almost king-like in his absence of party rancour and bitterness.

Lord Liverpool was a Tory, but during his later years of office he brought into his Ministry men of different views. His Government was said to resemble the keyboard of a piano, "alternately black and white down the whole line". One member of this Cabinet was George Canning, a very brilliant statesman, who has been called a Liberal Tory.

In April 1827 Canning succeeded Lord Liverpool as Prime Minister. But he was too sensitive, too anxious to hold the balance between various parties, ever to make a leader. He died in the August of 1827, after being only a few months in office. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, where a fine statue by Chantrey now marks his grave. We are told that the rain fell in torrents on the day of his funeral, but that crowds attended it, and both Whigs and Tories united to pay him honour. He had indeed combined the best characteristics of both the Whigs and Tories.

On the death of Canning, Frederick John Robinson, Lord Goderich, afterwards Lord Ripon, became Prime Minister. People had so little opinion of his talent that they nicknamed him "Goody Goderich". There were many divisions among the members of his Cabinet, and he had not the power to smoothe over these divisions. He came into office when England was again

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involved in war—a war which was not serious enough to prevent the years from 1815 to 1846 being known in English history as the Thirty Years' Peace, but which was yet sufficient to turn Goderich out of office.



George Canning.

The story of that war is briefly this: The Christian Greeks had revolted against the Turks. Canning had been on the side of the Greeks, and in 1827, the year of his death, he signed the Treaty of London, by which England, France, and Russia agreed to endeavour to make terms for Greece. An allied English, French, and Russian fleet was sent into Greek waters to over-

awe the Turks. An opposition Turkish fleet anchored in Navarino Bay, off the coast of Greece. A truce of twenty days was arranged between the Turks and the allies, during which it was hoped terms would be made, but unfortunately, a Turkish ship fired on an English boat's crew, and a battle began, the Battle of Navarino, in which the Turkish fleet was destroyed.

The rising of the Greeks against the Turks had begun in 1821. Educated Englishmen had long loved Greece, for the sake of the ancient Greeks, who had left so much noble literature to the world. So when the modern Greeks rose against the Turks, many Englishmen went out as volunteers in the Greek cause, and to help, as they hoped, to rescue Greece from Turkish conquerors. Among these was the poet Lord Byron, who died of fever at Missolonghi, in Greece.

The Liberal Tory Ministry, as it may be called, under Lord Goderich, resigned in 1828, having only been in office from September 1827 to January 1828. It had become unpopular because, while many men were ardent in the cause of the Greeks, many others thought that England had better not interfere in foreign quarrels. It was succeeded by a purely Tory Ministry, under the Duke of Wellington, who, for all his talent as a soldier, was singularly unfortunate as a statesman. And the first ministerial act of the great general was to withdraw England from any participation in the war in Greece.

## Chapter XXXVII

### The Beginning of Reform

While these Prime Ministers had been succeeding one another, many events had been happening in England.

The first years of George the Fourth's reign were, like the last years of the reign of George the Third, years of much trouble. There had been much poverty in the country, owing to many being thrown out of work by the use of machinery, to the many soldiers who had returned from the war, with no means of livelihood, and to the inefficient laws for the relief of the poor.

With the enormous growth of the population and of the manufacturing towns, another difficulty had arisen. Many large towns, such as Birmingham, Leeds, and Manchester, had no Members of Parliament, because some years before they had been only little villages. On the other hand, some small agricultural places, which had decreased in population, returned one, or even two members. Old Sarum, once a town, but in the nineteenth century only a heap of ruins, still had two Members of Parliament, who were elected by a single landowner.

While some districts, therefore, were over-represented in Parliament, some of the largest centres of population were not represented at all. Many people

felt that they could not make their wants known in an orderly fashion if they had no member to represent them in Parliament, and so rioting was resorted to.

The Manchester Riots, which took place in 1819, are some of the best remembered of these riots, and they had a sequel which made the first year of George



Old Sarum.

the Fourth's reign a sad one. Thirty thousand people assembled at Manchester to hear a speaker known as "Orator" Hunt. He was a man who was ever ready to stir up his hearers to violence by his wild words on reform, but was careful himself to keep out of the danger which he proposed for other people. The meeting was dispersed by a regiment of cavalry. Five or six people were crushed to death, and nearly seventy

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were injured. Government upheld the magistrates, who had called out the soldiers, and to avenge this, a plot, known as the Cato Street Conspiracy, was hatched. A man named Arthur Thistlewood, and twenty-five desperate men, met in Cato Street, Edgware Road, in February 1820, and plotted to assas-



Lord John Russell.

sinate all the chief Government Ministers. One of the twenty-five conspirators, however, betraved the plan. Thistlewood and five of his accomplices were arrested on the charge of high treason. Thev were sentenced to death. and beheaded. This was

the last occasion on which a criminal has been beheaded in this country.

Such desperate methods did no good to the cause which they intended to help. Riots and conspiracies put off the day of reform instead of hastening it. Very little was done in the way of Parliamentary reform during the reign of George the Fourth.

For instance, when in 1822 a celebrated statesman, Lord John Russell, brought in a resolution that "the present state of Representation requires serious consideration", it was rejected. In 1830 he again brought in a resolution to give members to the great unrepresented towns of Leeds, Birmingham, and Manchester. That too was rejected.

Another matter which was being much thought of at this time, was religious toleration. Many public offices were closed to Roman Catholics. This was especially hard on the Irish, who were mostly Roman Catholics. The subject had been often brought before Parliament, but it was not until the year 1829 that what is known as the Catholic Relief Bill was passed. It enabled Roman Catholics to sit as Members of Parliament, and threw open almost all public posts to them, except those of Regent. Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, and Lord Chancellor of England.

# Reign of William IV

## Chapter XXXVIII

#### William the Fourth

On June 26, 1830, George the Fourth died at Windsor. He was only sixty-eight years of age, but in his appearance and habits was far older. He had lived a lonely life for some years, his chief amusement being to drive about Windsor in a pony-carriage, or to sail on Virginia Water. He disliked meeting any one in these drives or expeditions, and towards the end of his life, all exertion was painful to him. When told that his end was near, he bore the news with courage, and he endured the suffering of his illness with patience.

During his regency England had a great military record, and in his reign some few wise reforms were carried out at home.

The new king, William the Fourth, long known to the people of England as the Duke of Clarence, was the third son of George the Third. The second son, Frederick Duke of York, had died in 1827, without children. William was sixty-five years of age when he came to the throne. At thirteen he had gone to sea, and his wise father, George the Third, had been careful that he should receive the training and share the hardships of all the other midshipmen. At sixtyfive he had all the cheery manner which marked the sailors of those days. Englishmen were pleased with a king whose training had been in that navy of which they were so proud.



William IV.

The late king had been too seldom seen: King William, on the contrary, liked to be in public, and was often walking in the London streets with his big umbrella—for all umbrellas were big then—tucked under his arm, and ready to exchange a hearty greeting with all his acquaintances.

Before his accession he had for some years lived quietly at Bushey Park. He had married Princess Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen, but none of her children lived beyond their infancy.

The reign of William the Fourth was a short one, lasting only from 1830 to 1837. But that period saw Parliamentary reform not only thought of, and pro-

posed, but carried through.

The Duke of Wellington had been defeated in the elections of November 1830, owing to his determined opposition to reform. He had not been successful as a leader in Parliament. The Iron Duke, as he was called, was a fearless soldier and a splendid general, but as a politician he was timid and uncertain. Indeed, the French Revolution might well make men of that generation afraid of liberty, when they had seen anarchy called by its name.

On the resignation of the duke in 1830, the Whigs came into power, after having been for twenty years in opposition. The new Prime Minister, Lord Grev, was a man of some eloquence and dignity, much Parliamentary experience, and high character.

We are now going to read of the history of the Reform Bill of 1832. On the death of George the Third, many men had felt that the time for reform in the Parliamentary representation of England had come. The history, however, of the various attempts at this reform, is a history of struggles between two parties: those who honestly believed that reform was needed, and could now safely be tried, and those who honestly believed it was still a danger to the welfare of the country, which both they and their opponents loved equally.

As long ago as 1745 a Reform Bill had been proposed, and others were brought in from time to time,

but were rejected by Parliament. In 1821, 1822, and 1823, and again in 1830, Lord John Russell in vain endeavoured to get a hearing for reform. During some of the years in which these unsuccessful Reform Bills had been before Parliament, the Duke of Wellington, their determined opponent, had been Prime Minister: but when he was succeeded by Lord Grey, who, as Mr. Grey, had



Earl Grey.

brought in Reform Bills in 1792 and 1793, the new Prime Minister made it a condition of his taking office that reform should follow.

Accordingly, in March 1831, Lord John Russell brought in his celebrated Reform Bill. The excitement was very great. The Ministry were successful by one vote only, and they asked the king to dissolve Parliament and appeal to the people for their opinion.

The king determined to go and dissolve Parliament in person, and when some difficulty was made about getting ready the state carriages, he declared he would go in a hackney coach if no other carriage could be got.

People were delighted with his spirit and determination, and with a speech so characteristic of the homely old man, who was more of a sailor than a king, and his words were repeated all over the country with approbation. He was more popular than ever. His carriage was followed by cheering crowds when he appeared, as he loved to do, in the streets, and he was now fondly known as the "Patriot King".

"The Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill" was the election cry. Lord Grey's Whig Ministry again came into power, and in June 1831 Lord John

Russell again brought forward his bill.

The Duke of Wellington, however, threw his influence against it in the House of Lords, and once again the bill did not pass. The Duke of Wellington became very unpopular in consequence of his action in this matter, and the iron shutters which were long to be seen at Apsley House in Piccadilly, where the duke lived, were put up during this time of unpopularity to protect him from rioters.

But in the June of 1832, in the midst of wild excitement in Parliament and in the country, the Reform Bill passed both Houses. The long-hoped-for reform had come at last, after years of struggle and debate.

In December 1832 the old House of Commons was dissolved, and in January 1833 the first Reformed

Parliament met. The bill had disfranchised or taken away members from fifty-six small boroughs, and had given members to many unrepresented towns. It had also made some slight changes in the qualifications of voters.

In July 1834 Lord Grey resigned and Lord Melbourne became Prime Minister. But he resigned in

November 1834. Melbourne and himself carried the king's message to the Duke of Wellington asking him to form a Ministry. The duke proposed that Sir Robert Peel, who was then at Rome. should be chosen as the new Premier. Peel left Rome on November 26 and was in London



Sir Robert Peel.

by December 9, and in those days this was considered an unusually rapid journey.

On his arrival in England, Peel made an address to his constituents at Tamworth which is remembered in history as the Tamworth Manifesto, and which gained him the name of a "Progressive Conservative". This manifesto has been called the "Charter" of the Conservative Party. It was their new programme.

Peel showed that he wished earnestly for progress, but was opposed to parting with what was good in old institutions. A "correction of proved abuses and the redress of real grievances" was his watchword.

But although the new Tory Party, now no longer known as Tories, but Conservatives, had gained many



Lord Melbourne.

seats in the new Parliament of 1834, Peel could not get some of his reforming measures through. The opposition did not like even reform if it was introduced by their opponents. On April 8, 1835, he resigned. He was the originator of the Conservative Party, and a French historian has said of him that he was "the most liberal of Conservatives, the most

conservative of Liberals, and was the most capable man of all in both parties" in his day.

Lord Melbourne again became Prime Minister when Peel resigned. He remained in office to the end of the reign, and became the most trusted counsellor of the young queen who succeeded William the Fourth.

Before we end this chapter we must see what had

been happening in some other countries during the reigns of George the Fourth and William the Fourth.

In France, Louis the Eighteenth had died in 1824, and his brother Charles became king as Charles the Tenth. But in 1830 the Revolution of the Three Days, as it was called, obliged him to leave France, and he died in exile in 1836. He lived for some part of his exile at Holyrood Palace, near Edinburgh. Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, another of the old French royal family, was elected king, under the title of King of the French, and not, as in old days, King of France. He reigned from 1830 to 1848.

In Belgium changes had also been taking place. In 1810 Napoleon had annexed the Netherlands, which then included Belgium. But in 1813 the people of the Netherlands shook off the French rule, and recalled one of the princes of the House of Orange as their king. Belgium then wished to be free of Holland, and in August 1830 the Belgians rose against the Dutch and demanded a separation of the two nations. The result was that Belgium became a separate kingdom, and in 1831 Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, the widowed husband of that English Princess Charlotte who had died in 1818, was proclaimed King of the Belgians, Holland retaining her king, William of Orange.

The reign of William the Fourth was, as we have said, a short one. On June 30, 1837, he died at Windsor Castle. He had been ill since May, but had borne his sufferings with the courage of his royal race. Queen Adelaide was his devoted nurse, and he died

in his sleep, with his head resting on her shoulder. He had been beloved, and increasingly beloved, by his people. He had proved himself a constitutional monarch, bound by the constitution under which he governed, and had nobly set aside his own wishes in public matters when the needs of his country required it. His attention to the duties of his station was the more commendable because he was no longer young when he came to the throne, and he had no training in the duties of a king. It was truly said of him, that he always acted a straightforward and honourable part.

## Chapter XXXIX

## Review of the Reigns of George the Fourth and William the Fourth

THE reigns of George the Fourth and William the Fourth lasted such a short time, only seventeen years in all, that in the history of the progress made in them, we may take them as one period, rather than as two reigns.

It was the epoch of reform. One great reform, the famous Reform Bill, was followed by others, and not the least important was the reform of the criminal law. We have heard that it was inhumanly severe. Men could be hanged for sending threatening letters, for stealing anything from a shop over the value of five shillings, stealing fish out of a pond, assuming the

uniform of the Chelsea pensioners when they had no claim to it, and in fact two hundred offences, many of them of the same nature, were punishable by death.

Instead of deterring men from crime, this severity only hardened and brutalized them. Juries would not convict, judges would not sentence, and therefore many who deserved punishment escaped. Two noble men, Sir Samuel Romilly, whose fine portrait by Sir Thomas Lawrence still looks down on us from the walls of the National Portrait Gallery, and after him, Sir James Macintosh, laboured untiringly to obtain reform in these laws. Something was done by both, and in 1823 Sir Robert Peel took up the question, and still further reform was the result. Now, as we know, capital punishment is reserved for the crimes of treason and murder.

The Poor Law, as we have seen, needed reform also, and during this period much was done to improve it. In the days of poverty during the war with Napoleon, kind-hearted ratepayers had made allowances to the poor of their parishes from the rates. It was kindly meant, but it had the effect of making employers give small wages, and also of making idle people do no work at all, as they could get parish relief without much inquiry, and without going into the union. The Poor Law Amendment Act of 1834 was rather a return to all that was wisest in a Poor Law as old as the reign of Queen Elizabeth than anything new. By its regulations, groups of parishes were united into unions, and union workhouses serving for each group took the place of the little parish

workhouses, which are still to be seen in country villages, although no longer used as workhouses. The administration of relief was placed in the hands of responsible persons, known as guardians of the poor, and under them were the relieving officers, who investigated cases of poverty and laid them before the guardians.

One other reform of the Poor Law made in 1834 was also a return to the spirit of the Elizabethan Poor Law, and did very much to check evil. This was the confining outdoor relief to impotent people only. Able-bodied people and their families were now obliged to go into the workhouse, and were no longer supported in idleness at home. The effect was that many more endeavoured to find work and to demand a fair wage from their employers. The year 1834 saw the erection of union workhouses all over the kingdom.

This period saw the beginning at least of reform in the conditions of factory workers. The child workers in the factories suffered most. Those who worked in the mills in the north were "confined in close and heated rooms, stunned with the roar of revolving wheels, poisoned with the noxious effluvia of grease and gas, until turned out weary, exhausted, and half naked, to the cold air, to creep shivering to their beds, from which a relay of their young fellow-workers had just risen". The child labourers in coalmines were even worse off. In darkness and damp, they carried loads, or pushed trucks too heavy for them, through long hours, until, bruised and weary, they struggled back to sleep, too tired even to think



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of a game of play. It was not wonderful that they grew up stunted, pale, sickly, ignorant, and hopeless

Even in the last years of the eighteenth century some men, such as Robert Owen the saddler's son, from Newtown in Montgomeryshire, had seen and deplored these things, and when he became manager of some cotton mills at Lanark, in Scotland, he set up night-schools for those employed all day in the mills, and schools for the infants, and did much to improve the workmen's dwellings. But reform came slowly.

In 1830 some devoted men, Richard Oastler, of Leeds, known as the "Factory King", and Michael Sadler, a Leeds banker, tried to wake people up to the evil which was going on in the great industries, and which was so little regarded. In 1831 Sadler proposed a Ten Hours Bill, by which the hours of labour of women and children in factories were not to exceed ten hours in the twenty-four.

It failed, because at the moment all men were occupied by the Reform Bill, and Sadler, being, as were so many of those who pressed for legislation for the factories, a Tory, failed to get a seat in the Reformed Parliament. Something was indeed done. The young Lord Ashley, afterwards known as the good Lord Shaftesbury, after whom Shaftesbury Avenue in London is named, brought in and carried a bill which prohibited the employment of children under nine years old, and women and children under eighteen were not to work more than twelve hours in the day. It was not much, but it was a gain, and more was done in the next reign, although it was still difficult to make men

see the evil. Even Liberal statesmen, who were eager for many reforms, fought against the Factory Acts, and they were chiefly the work of the Tories. They have been said to be "a striking example of good legislation. They have not injured our industries;



Seventh Earl of Shaftesbury (after Millais).

they have saved our artisan class"—made them strong and ablebodied, because in most cases they need no longer work under injurious conditions.

We read that in 1807 the slave trade between Africa and the English colonies was abolished. In 1833 an Act for emancipating all slaves employed in the English colonies was passed. The names to be remembered in connexion

with this reform are those of Zachary Macaulay and William Wilberforce. Macaulay had been the manager of an estate in the West Indies, but "he had given up the position because his conscience would not allow him to have anything to do with slavery, and he had come home to devote his time, his abilities, and his earnestness to the generous task of rousing up his

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countrymen to a full sense of the horrors which were inseparable from the system". Of William Wilberforce we have already heard. Lord Stanley, afterwards Lord Derby, introduced the bill, and brought all his brilliant oratory to its help.

Some changes were made at this time in the mercantile system of England which regulated trade with other countries. The name of William Huskisson is connected with these changes. He altered the Navigation Acts, which were as old as the days of Cromwell. By them the importation of goods from most foreign countries into English dominions, except in English ships, or the ships of the country in which the goods were made, was forbidden. Huskisson brought in what was known as the Reciprocity of Duties Bill. It allowed foreign ships to come into our ports if English ships were allowed to enter the foreign harbours in return. This was known as reciprocity.

## Chapter XL

## Social Changes

We have seen that in the reign of George the Third much use was made of canals for conveying goods from one centre of industry to another. Nearly three thousand miles of canals were constructed in the last years of the eighteenth century, and a hundred and sixty-five Canal Acts were passed in Parliament.

Thomas Telford was a celebrated canal engineer. He constructed the Ellesmere Canal, which joined together the three rivers, the Severn, the Mersey, and the Dee, and had a wonderful arched aqueduct raised nearly seventy feet above the Dee River. He was the engineer also of the celebrated Menai Bridge, which was begun in 1819. But traffic increased so rapidly with the growth of manufacture, that men began to turn their attention to the improvement of the roads, and here too Telford made a name for himself. He paid much attention to the surface of the roads, which had hitherto been only carelessly made with loose gravel or flints. He taught men to break up stones for their road-making, and to lay these small stones, mixed with gravel, as a firm foundation; and what Telford was doing in Wales and Scotland, Macadam was doing around Bristol. All these improvements in roads made it easier to get from place to place, and coaches could now travel at ten miles an hour, which was then considered a very rapid rate of travelling.

Steam was not as yet used as a driving-power for locomotives, but was much used for driving engines in manufactories. The first works where these engines were made were at Soho, near Birmingham. In 1776 Johnson and Boswell were on a tour together, and Boswell visited the Soho works, which were then owned by Matthew Boulton. Boswell wrote that he went "to see the great works of Mr. Boulton, at a place which he called Soho, about two miles from Birmingham. I wished Johnson had been with me,

Britannia Bridge.

for it was a scene which I should have been glad to contemplate by his light. The vastness and contrivance of some of the machinery would have matched his mighty mind." "I sell here", said Boulton, "what all the world desires to have—power!"



Puffing Bilty.

The time soon came when steam began to be used for driving ships and locomotives. In 1811 a steamboat was made in America, and in 1812 the first British steamboat was launched on the Clyde. But the ordinary merchant ships and men-of-war had still their beautiful tall masts and sails. In 1814 George Stephenson constructed a locomotive engine known as "Puffing Billy", which was quickly followed by

others. In 1821 Parliament gave permission for a passenger railway from Stockton to Darlington, and in 1826 permission for another between Liverpool and Manchester. Stephenson was the engineer of the new line and of its first engine, the "Rocket", which

was able to go at the then incredible speed of thirtyfive miles an hour.

On September 15,1830, the Liverpool and Manchester Railway was opened with great ceremony. The Duke of Wellington, Sir Robert Peel, and Mr. Huskisson, who had left the Duke of Wellington's



George Stephenson.

Ministry in 1828, were present. There had been some coldness between the duke and Mr. Huskisson, and this opening was made the opportunity of making up the difference. Mr. Huskisson got out of the train at some stopping-place on the line, and went to the duke's carriage, but almost as they were shaking hands, forgetting old differences, Mr. Huskisson was knocked down by the train. He died the same night in the Vicarage House at Eccles.

While trains steadily improved, another variety of

steam-driven locomotive long lagged behind. This was the road motor. And yet, as early as the end of the eighteenth century, some few steam locomotives were running on English roads. In 1833 two steam coaches were running in London itself, and others



Steam carriage running between London and Birmingham, 1832.

ran from London to Birmingham In those days, however, large tolls had to be paid on the roads at the old turnpike-gates—the tolls providing means for the repair of the roads—and these put an end to steam-driven road-vehicles for many a long day.

No mention has yet been made of the power of electricity, which we now see working telephones and

telegraphs, driving motors, and lighting houses and streets. The word "electric" comes from a Greek word, elektron, which means amber; for, thousands of years ago, the Greeks saw that amber, if rubbed, emitted sparks. This was the first discovery of what we call electricity. But it was not until the nineteenth century that men found out that they could make this electricity work for them. In 1836 it was discovered that signals could be conveyed by electric sparks through wire, and by 1837, when our history ends, the system was so far perfected that messages could be sent by it.

During the last days of the reign of George the Third, the period known as the Regency, many improvements were made in London. Regent's Park, which up to the beginning of the nineteenth century had been covered with fields, was now laid out as a park by John Nash, who also designed most of the terraces which surround it. They are built in a style which imitates the old architecture of Greece and Rome, but whereas in Greece and Rome they built of solid marble and Nash's imitations were mostly of very much more flimsy materials, the lines were written:

Augustus at Rome was for building renowned, And of marble he left what of brick he had found, But is not our Nash too a very great master, Who found us all brick, and left us all plaster?

The Zoological Gardens in the Regent's Park, which have delighted generations of children, were opened in 1826.

London was in a state of excitement when, on October 16, 1833, the old Houses of Parliament were seen to be on fire. The royal princes, the Members of Parliament, and the Cabinet Ministers hurried to the spot, but though Westminster Hall was happily saved by being deluged with water, the old House of Commons, and much of the old Palace of the Kings at Westminster, were both destroyed.

After this catastrophe, the present Houses of Parliament were built, by Sir Charles Barry, in the style of architecture in use in the days of the Tudors, and known as Decorated. But although designed before the close of the reign of William the Fourth, they were not begun until 1840.

Architecture, as we have seen, had during the Regency mainly consisted of flimsy imitations of Greek and Roman buildings in domestic architecture, but in churches and public buildings, though the design was still classical, the materials were better. St. Pancras Church, Marylebone Road, is a fine imitation of a Grecian temple. But very soon this classical art was thrown aside for imitations of the later Gothic art, which Horace Walpole had endeavoured to revive in the eighteenth century. St. Luke's, Chelsea, built in 1824, is an early example of this Gothic revival.

Among artists of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, John Constable, the landscape painter, who died in 1837, must be remembered. Many of his pictures are to be seen in the National Gallery, in Trafalgar Square. We see in them the freshness

and life and movement in the trees and the skies, and in the waters. "Windy and delicious", he said himself of one of his pictures of storm-driven clouds.



St. Luke's Church, Chelsea.

The greatest painter of these years was J. M. W. Turner, who was born in 1775 near Covent Garden, and lived until 1851. His landscapes—pictures of foreign towns, of English cathedrals, of English scenes

—are very fine, and they may be seen in the Tate Gallery. The great portrait painters of the time were Sir Thomas Lawrence, who died in 1830, and the Scottish artist, Sir Henry Raeburn, whose pictures are more numerous in Edinburgh than in London.



John Constable.

Literature during this period was best represented by Sir Walter Scott, who not only wrote stirring poems, such as *Marmion* and the *Lady of the Lake*, but poured forth novel after novel, beginning with *Waverley* in 1814, and ending with *Castle Dangerous*, published in 1832. *Waverley*, published without his name, delighted all England, and its author was for long called "The Great Unknown".



Sir Walter Scott.

Thomas Campbell, who was born in 1777, was the poet of the stirring days of the war with Napoleon, and most English children still learn and love his poems *Hohenlinden* and *Ye Mariners of England*.

In these years the sciences of chemistry, astronomy,

and geology made great strides, and what we call nature study was more thought of than it had ever been before. Gilbert White, whose Natural History of Selborne has been read by many generations of children, was perhaps the first man who made the world interested in the little creatures in the hedgerows and fields, the animals and the birds, and showed that the best way to study them was to watch their habits when they were alive, instead of catching and killing them to put into a museum or a collection.

Very little was done for the education of the children of the poor up to the year 1837. What was done was chiefly done by private people, and not by the State. In 1698 Dr. Bray had founded a society which still exists, known as the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. Many of the so-called charity schools, in which the children wore a uniform, were founded by this society. It was a Church society, and religious instruction was much considered.

In 1730 Griffith Jones, a Welsh clergyman, founded what are known as the Welsh Circulating Schools. He sent schoolmasters from parish to parish, teaching grown-up people to read. In most English villages, too, private charity supported schools, and in some cases the vestry levied rates to assist them. Then came the development of Sunday Schools, and later the Quaker Lancaster, and Joseph Bell, a churchman, helped on the Day School movement. In 1832 the Government granted £20,000 towards education. It was to be spent on erecting schools only, and these

schools were to be managed either by the National Society, which carried on Bell's work, or the British and Foreign School Society, which carried on that of Lancaster.

# Chapter XLI

#### Ireland

IRELAND is a part of the United Kingdom, and has had a share in the building-up of the British empire. Her home history has been very unhappy, and we have now to see what the course of that history was during the years when Great Britain was growing prosperous. The Penal Laws, as they are called, had been in force since the days of William the Third, and they pressed hardly upon the Roman Catholics, who formed three-fourths of the population of the country. Roman Catholics could not sit in Parliament or vote for a Member of Parliament. They could not be judges, barristers, members of town corporations, soldiers or sailors. The estate of a Roman Catholic had, on his death, to be divided among all his children. but if one of them turned Protestant, that one might claim the whole estate. In days when every gentleman wore a sword, no Roman Catholic was allowed to wear arms. The Irish Nonconformists, too, had grievances. They could not hold any post under Government

There were also laws which hampered Irish trade. Ireland could not deal directly with the colonies. The Irish were obliged to send their goods for the colonies to England, where they were taxed, and they were liable to a second tax on reaching the colony to which they were sent. And they might not send goods to England for sale lest they should damage English trade. Very much harm, too, was done to Ireland by thoughtless absentee landlords, who preferred living in England and left the management of their estates to agents. These agents as a rule cared nothing for the tenants: they only tried to get as much money out of the poor as they could.

The government of Ireland was carried on by a Lord-Lieutenant sent from England and an Irish Parliament of two houses, a House of Lords and a House of Elected Members. This Parliament was composed entirely of members of the Church of Ireland, which was a branch of the Church of England. It had powers of legislation and taxation for Ireland, but by a law passed in 1494, and known as Poyning's Law, its decrees were subject to the consent of the English Privy Council. The English Parliament had also the power of making laws for Ireland without the consent of the Irish Parliament.

The trade regulations made Ireland poor: the penal laws made her discontented. The happy Irish nature, indeed, kept her people cheerful in spite of trouble. Arthur Young, at the end of the eighteenth century, said that the Irish were "voluble, cheerful, lively, and hospitable, despite their poverty, to all

comers"; that they were warm friends, civil, submissively obedient, and great dancers. He noticed the little village schools with approbation. In cases where the landlords lived on their estates and did not leave them to be managed by their agents, there was often much good feeling between landlord and tenant. Neighbourly feeling also in many cases prevented Protestants from putting the penal laws in force against their Roman Catholic neighbours.

But in spite of these alleviations, there could not fail to be discontent, and in the early years of George the Third's reign definite attempts were made to improve matters. One leader in these attempts was Henry Grattan, who, in 1775, became Member for Charlemont in the Irish Parliament. The first result of his convictions, and the eloquence with which he supported them, was that he obtained an improvement in Irish trade regulations, and, in 1782, an independent Parliament for Ireland. This Parliament, known as Grattan's Parliament, lasted from 1782 to 1800. It, however, by no means represented the Irish people, because no Roman Catholic was allowed to sit in it.

There were, as we have seen, different parties in Ireland. There were the Roman Catholics, who were still suffering under the Penal Code, and who, seeing that Grattan's Protestant Parliament did little for them, became more discontented than ever. They formed societies against the Government, of which the best remembered is that of the White Boys, so called because they wore white shirts as a sort of uniform.

And there were the Protestants who formed a society, known as that of the Orangemen, after their Protestant hero William of Orange, to support the Parliament against the Romanists.

In 1791, a young landowner, Wolfe Tone, started another society known as that of the United Irishmen, in which both Roman Catholics and Protestants were united in a plan to obtain a more representative Parliament for Ireland. With the help of Pitt, who was looking with some uneasiness on affairs in Ireland, they did gain two Acts from the Irish Parliament allowing Roman Catholics to vote for Members of Parliament and granting freedom of public worship. This was in 1793.

In 1794 a new Lord-Lieutenant was sent to Dublin, Lord FitzWilliam, and the United Irishmen hoped much from him. But he disappointed their hopes, and Wolfe Tone appealed for help to France, which was then governed by the Directory. The Roman Catholics, meanwhile, broke out into more determined riots and the Protestants rose against them. It now became a struggle in Ireland between Romanists and Protestants.

In the midst of these troubles, French ships appeared in Bantry Bay. Bad weather prevented their landing and they sailed away again. The United Irishmen now planned an insurrection on a large scale without help from France. This broke out in 1798, but the leaders were betrayed to the Government, and the rebels could only hold out for a few weeks. In June 1798 they were defeated at Vinegar Hill near Enniscorthy.

Many thoughtful statesmen considered that the Protestant Irish Parliament had brought about this trouble by giving no share in the government to their Roman Catholic countrymen. Pitt thought he saw a way out of the difficulty, and that was to bring about a Union between England and Ireland similar to that between England and Scotland. The result of the rebellion of 1798 was, therefore, a bill for the Union of the two countries. It was drawn up, and after much difficulty was passed by the Parliaments at Dublin and at Westminster. It provided that there should be one Parliament for England and Ireland, and gave freedom of trade to Ireland.

Not until the year 1829 did Ireland obtain what is known as Catholic Relief, or emancipation—relief, that is, of the Romanists from the Penal Laws which, in spite of some repeals in 1793, still pressed heavily upon them. Many attempts had indeed been made for this relief. Henry Grattan, who was himself a Protestant, had laboured unremittingly for it, and may be said to have given his life for the cause. In 1820 he had undertaken to present a petition for Catholic emancipation from the Irish Roman Catholics to the English Parliament. He was ill and unfit for the work, but his reply to the remonstrances of his friends was, " I should be happy to die in the discharge of my duty". He did die soon after his arrival in London, and was buried, as so "pure-minded and austere a lover of his country" merited, in Westminster Abbey. He was not always wise as a statesman, but he was a fine example of honesty and consistency

in his public life, and his private life was equally irreproachable.

Under the leadership of an Irish gentleman, Daniel O'Connell, Ireland agitated for the emancipation, and at last, in 1829, the Duke of Wellington, who was then Prime Minister, gave way, and on April 14 the long-waited-for Catholic Relief Bill became law.

# Chapter XLII

#### Colonization from 1714 to 1837

In 1714, when this history begins, England had settlements in America, in India, in West Africa, and was in possession also of Gibraltar in Spain, St. Helena in mid-Atlantic, and some of the West Indian islands between North and South America. It was not much, perhaps, but it at least showed that Englishmen were of a roving disposition, that they were ready to seek their fortunes in new worlds, that they could endure hardness, could turn their hands to most things, and could exist in the cold of North America and under the scorching skies of India, "in tropic sun or polar snow". Here were qualities which make for colonization.

The history of the English in America and in India has been already told. But in thinking of these two countries, we must remember (1) that the first English who went to America went to settle, to continue for ever, and to call the lands after their own names; (2) that the English who first went to India went simply to trade, either in their own interests or in the interests of the East India Company—" John Company", as it was nicknamed. They had no intention of making India their home. They lived around their "factories", but they were in no sense colonists. Like Warren Hastings, their minds turned fondly back to England in the midst of their moneymaking: that was home, and to it they hoped to return.

Leaving America and India, we will now see how England over the sea, Greater Britain, as it has been called, grew and strengthened, until at last it might be said that on her empire the sun never sets.

We will first take the Australian and New Zealand settlements. To Portuguese, to Spaniards, and to Dutch belongs the first discovery of these far-away lands. But Englishmen like to remember how James Cook sailed along their coasts, and "took possession of the whole eastern coast in right of his Majesty King George the Third, by the name of New South Wales".

We remember that when Cook was planting the English flag in Australia. America was being lost to England. The first settlements in Australia were indirectly the result of the American War. A number of convicts had every year been sent from England to America, but after the war they could no longer be sent there. In 1783 it was proposed to send them to New South Wales, and thus make use of the country

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of which Cook had taken possession for England. In May 1787, 750 convicts, under the guard of soldiers, and commanded by a naval officer, Captain Phillip, set sail for Botany Bay, which had been discovered and named by Cook. It was not reached until January 1788, and then the first welcome that the poor exiles



Botany Bay.

received was cries of "Begone, begone!" from the natives, who ran down to the sea to meet them. But the emigrants were not disheartened. "To us it was a great and important day", wrote one of Phillip's captains, "and I hope will mark the foundation of an empire".

Phillip was made governor of the new colony of New South Wales, and with the sheep and cattle brought from England it soon became self-supporting. In 1815 Governor Macquarrie did much to carry on Phillip's wise administration, and when he left the colony in 1821 it had a population of 30,000 English, and possessed a quarter of a million sheep.

We must remember that the colonization of Australia was in some ways easy. There were no European traders and no natives strong enough to resent the intrusion of foreigners. The frequent droughts, indeed, were a serious drawback, but the natural features of the country lent themselves to the pasturing of flocks and herds without need of very laborious clearance.

From these beginnings in New South Wales, colonization spread to Tasmania, Western Australia, Victoria, Southern Australia, and Queensland, some of these being at first convict settlements, others directly colonized by more respectable emigrants from England. In all, sheep-farming and wheat-growing were the first industries.

New Zealand has rather a different history. Its first settlers were disorderly sailors and traders. In 1817 they were placed under the supervision of the Governor of New South Wales, and things rapidly improved. In 1839 it was finally taken over by England.

We must now turn to Africa. We have read of the Assiento, which gave England a share in the slave trade. For this trade, settlements were made by the English slave traders at the mouth of the Gambia River, in West Africa, and the district around it has ever since remained a British possession.

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In 1632 the Dutch had established a port at the Cape of Good Hope, as convenient for their Indian trading ships, and they gradually colonized the near surrounding country. In 1795 the English occupied it, to secure it against the French navy, which was not unlikely to be making for India. This occupation only lasted until 1803, when it reverted to the Dutch. By the Peace of Paris in 1814, however, it was finally made over to England, on the payment of £6,000,000 to the Dutch Government in Holland. Very little English colonization indeed took place at first in South Africa, and as has been said, to "the Dutch grazing farmer, living from 100 to 300 miles from Cape Town, the change of rulers" from Dutch to English "made little difference". Fruit-growing, wine-making, wheat-growing, cattle- and sheep-farming—these were still the industries of Cape Colony.

The history of the English in Ceylon is somewhat similar to that of the English at the Cape. In 1795 Ceylon also was taken from the Dutch settlers, and for the same reasons as had led to the English occupation at the Cape. It has remained in the possession of England ever since.

Two lesser islands were also acquired by England as means to stay Napoleon's sea march towards India: Malta and Mauritius. Of Malta we have already heard. The refusal to give it up on the part of England led to Napoleon's renewed hostilities with England in 1802. Mauritius was originally Dutch, and named after a Dutch hero, Maurice of Nassau. In the eighteenth century France took it, and named

it the Île de France, but England saw its value as a coaling station, and in 1810 took it from the French.

The only important additions to English possessions in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries were Dominica, Grenada, St. Vincent, St. Lucia, Tobago, and Trinidad. In 1796 another Dutch colony, this time in South America, came to the English. British Guiana, on the north-east coast of South America, had been colonized by English in the seventeenth century, but by 1796 it was in possession of the Dutch. In that year a British force from the neighbouring island of Barbados took a portion of it, and the English have remained in possession of it ever since. It is a sugar-growing colony, and much of it is still marked in twentieth century maps as "unexplored wilderness". A curious little piece of country, not larger than Wales, opposite Jamaica, in the peninsula which joins North and South America, known as British Honduras, also became English territory at the end of the eighteenth century. Its chief wealth lies in its forests of mahogany and other woods used in furnituremaking and building.

Some other scattered acquisitions must be mentioned. In the eighteenth century the East India Company had had trading centres in the Malay Peninsula, and in 1819 Singapore was purchased by England from its native prince or raja. Then Malacca was obtained from the Dutch settlers, and by 1837 the whole peninsula was in English keeping.

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The advantage of these stations to shipping in days of long, slow voyages was very great. They are now known as the Straits Settlements.

In 1765 Falkland Island, one of a group of islands in the Southern Atlantic, had been visited by English whalers. It does not seem to be a very enviable home; black bog, moorland, and no trees, is the description we have of it in books of travel. It became, however, an English possession and has its own little colony who live by whaling and seal fishing.

The history of Pitcairn Island is a more interesting one. The island is situated in the Pacific Ocean, and although only four and a half miles in circumference it seems to contain most things which are needed to make a pleasant dwelling-place—a good climate, delightful fruit trees and vegetation of all sorts. It was colonized by mutineers from the ship *Bounty* in 1789. The mutineers put their captain and nineteen of their shipmates into an open boat and sent them away. After a wearisome voyage the captain got safely back to England.

The mutineers, meanwhile, had landed at Pitcairn, and their leader, Adams, found at first that he had a very disorderly little community to manage. They distilled a strong spirit from a native root, drank until they were almost mad, and then quarrelled. Adams, however, was a strong leader, and the evil of all these things made him determined to set a high ideal before his men. With the help of a Bible and prayer-book, saved from the ship, he taught them: he divided the little island into allotments and gave

each a share: he forbade the manufacture of intoxicating drinks: he appointed a chief magistrate with two councillors under him to enforce order. Visitors now brought back very pleasant accounts of the high character of the Pitcairn Islanders, and all seemed owing to the determination of one man, John Adams.

We have now briefly read the history of the English colonies up to the year 1837. We have seen that, with some few exceptions, colonization was undertaken in the interests of trade. But we must always remember that although trade means money and prosperity, it is yet not everything. As a great writer said, "All men know, that to men and nations there are invaluable values which cannot be sold for money at all. Britain has other tasks appointed her in God's universe than the making of money." These tasks are the taking of high and noble ideals with her wherever she goes: ideals which are better than wealth, and without which wealth is but a poor, mean thing. But if English colonists take these high ideals with them, then the further their colonies spread the better will it be for the world. "England looking on her colonies can say: 'Here are lands and seas, spice lands, corn lands, timber lands, over-arched by zodiacs and stars, clasped by many-surrounding seas; wide spaces of the Maker's building, fit for the cradle yet of mighty nations and their sciences and their heroism.' Fertile continents are mine, into which all the distressed populations of Europe might pour themselves, and make at once an Old World, or a New World, human."



# Appendices

# 1. The Hanoverian Sovereigns

1. George the First, born 1660; married (1682) Sophia of Brunswick; became king 1714; died 1727.

Children: George II; Sophia (married Frederick

William of Prussia).

2. George the Second, born 1683; married (1705) Caroline of Anspach; became king 1727; died 1760.

Children: Frederick Prince of Wales (died 1751); William Duke of Cumberland; Anne (married the Prince of Orange); Mary (married the Landgrave of Hesse Cassel); Louisa (married the King of Denmark).

3. George the Third (son of Frederick Prince of Wales), born 1738; married (1761) Charlotte of Mecklenburg-

Strelitz; became king 1760; died 1820.

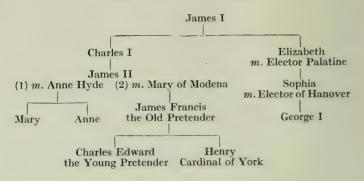
Children: George IV; Frederick Duke of York; William Duke of Clarence (William IV); Edward Duke of Kent (married Victoria of Saxe-Coburg); Ernest King of Hanover; Adolphus Duke of Cambridge; and six daughters.

4. George the Fourth, born 1762; married (1795) Caroline of Brunswick; became king 1820; died 1830.

Child: Charlotte, married Leopold of Saxe-Coburg.

5. William the Fourth; born 1765; married (1818) Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen; became king 1830; died 1837.

# 2. Table showing Descent of George I and the Pretenders



# 3. Dates of Important Events

George I.	
Jacobite Rebellion: battle of Sheriffmuir	1715
The Septennial Act	1716
The South Sea Bubble	1720
Ministry of Sir Robert Walpole	1721
George II.	
Walpole's Excise Bill	1733
War with Spain	1739
Fall of Walpole	1742
War of Austrian Succession:	
Battle of Dettingen	1743
Battle of Fontenoy	1745
The Young Pretender lands in Scotland	1745
Battle of Prestonpans	1745

Dates of Important Events	255
Battle of Falkirk	1746
Battle of Culloden	1746
Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle	1748
Clive at Arcot	1751
The Seven Years' War	1755-62
Battle of Plassey	1757
Capture of Louisburg	1758
Battle of Minden	1759
Capture of Quebec	1759
George III.	
Trial of John Wilkes	1763
Wedgwood's Pottery established	1763
Hargreaves invents spinning-jenny	1764
Stamp Act passed	1765
Watt invents steam-engine	1765
Stamp Act repealed	1766
Arkwright invents spinning-machine	1768
Wilkes elected three times M.P. for Middleses	1769
The Boston Tea Ships	1773
The Congress of Philadelphia	1774
Skirmish at Lexington	1775
Battle of Bunker's Hill	1775
Declaration of Independence	1776
Surrender of Saratoga	1777
The Mysore War	1778
Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown	1781
Victories of Rodney	1782
Trial of Warren Hastings	1786
The French Revolution	1789
War with France	1793
Lord Howe's victory (June 1)	1794
Battle of Camperdown	1797
Battle of Cape St. Vincent	1797

#### Dates of Important Events 256

*	
Battle of the Nile	1798
Battle of Copenhagen	1801
Battle of Trafalgar	1805
Abolition of Slave Trade	1807
The Peninsular War	1808
Battle of Vimiera	1808
Battle of Corunna	1809
Battle of Talavera	1809
Battle of Busaco	1810
Battle of Fuentes d'Onore	1811
Battle of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz	1812
Battle of Salamanca	1812
Battle of Vittoria	1813
Battle of Toulouse	1814
Napoleon banished to Elba	1814
Battle of Waterloo	1815
Cato Street Conspiracy	1820
George IV.	
Opening of First Railway	1825
Battle of Navarino	1827
Catholic Emancipation	1829
William IV.	
The Great Reform Bill	1832
Reform of the Poor Law	1834

The Great Reform Bill	1832
Reform of the Poor Law	1834

### 5. Stories of the Period

THE following are stories which may be recommended for home reading and for inclusion in the school library. Those marked with an asterisk (\*) are more especially suited to elder scholars and teachers.

#### George 1.

\*Rob Roy

\*Dorothy Forster

\*Lawrence Clavering

#### George II.

Bonnie Prince Charlie Kidnapped

\*Waverley

\*The Heart of Midlothian
With Wolfe in Canada
Rob the Ranger
With Clive in India
One of Clive's Heroes

Sir Walter Scott. Sir Walter Besant. A. E. W. Mason.

G. A. Henty.
R. L. Stevenson.
Sir Walter Scott.
Sir Walter Scott.
G. A. Henty.
Herbert Strang.
G. A. Henty.
Herbert Strang.

#### George III.

By Conduct and Courage
From Powder Monkey
Admiral
Held Fast for England
Boys of the Light Brigade
The Adventures of Dick
Trevanion
Our Great Adventure
Jack Hardy
With Moore at Corunna
The Young Buglers
One of the 28th
\*Barnaby Rudge

\*A Tale of Two Cities St. Ives

\*The Castle Inn

\*Vanity Fair

\*The Virginians

#### G. A. Henty.

W. H. G. Kingston. G. A. Henty. Herbert Strang.

Herbert Strang.
Herbert Strang.
G. A. Henty.
G. A. Henty.
G. A. Henty.
Charles Dickens.
Charles Dickens.
R. L. Stevenson.
Stanley Weyman.
W. M. Thackeray.
W. M. Thackeray.

#### Wae's me for Prince Charlie

A wee bird cam' to our ha' door,
He warbled sweet and clearly,
An' aye the o'er-come o' his sang
Was "Wae's me for Prince Charlie!"
Oh! when I heard the bonnie, bonnie bird,
The tears cam' droppin' rarely,
I took my bonnet aff my head,
For weel I lo'ed Prince Charlie.

Quoth I, "My bird, my bonnie, bonnie bird, Is that a sang ye borrow?

Are these some words ye've learnt by rote
Or a lilt o' dool an' sorrow?"

"Oh! no, no, no," the wee bird sang,
"I've flown sin' mornin' early;
But sic a day o' wind an' rain—
Oh! wae's me for Prince Charlie!

"On hills that are by right his ain,
He roves a lanely stranger,
On ilka hand he's press'd by want,
On ilka side is danger.
Yestreen I met him in a glen,
My heart near burstit fairly,
For sadly changed indeed was he—
Oh! wae's me for Prince Charlie!"

"Dark night cam' on, the tempest howl'd, Out-owre the hills an' valleys, An' where was't that your Prince lay down, Wha's hame should be a palace?"

"He row'd him in a Highland plaid,
Which cover'd him but sparely,
An' slept beneath a bush o' broom—
Oh! wae's me for Prince Charlie!"

But now the bird saw some red coats,
An' he shook his wings wi' anger,
"Oh! this is no a land for me;
I'll tarry here nac langer!"
A while he hover'd on the wing
Ere he departed fairly,
But weel I mind the farewell strain
Was, "Wae's me for Prince Charlie!"
W. Glen.

#### Welcome, Royal Charlie! (1745)

On! he was lang o' comin', Lang, lang, lang o' comin', Oh! he was lang o' comin'! Welcome, Royal Charlie!

When he on Moidart's shore did stand,
The friends he had within the land
Came down and shook him by the hand,
And welcomed Royal Charlie.

The dress that our Prince Charlie had, Was bonnet blue, and tartan plaid; And oh! he was a handsome lad, A true king's son was Charlie.

> But oh! he was lang o' comin', Lang, lang, lang o' comin', Oh! he was lang o' comin'! Welcome, Royal Charlie!

Tron.

# 260 Poems relating to the Period The Battle of the Baltic (1801)

OF Nelson and the North,
Sing the glorious day's renown,
When to battle fierce came forth
All the might of Denmark's crown,
And her arms along the deep proudly shone;
By each gun the lighted brand,
In a bold determined hand,
And the Prince of all the land
Led them on.—

Like leviathans afloat
Lay their bulwarks on the brine;
While the sign of battle flew
On the lofty British line;
It was ten of April morn by the chime;
As they drifted on their path,
There was silence deep as death;
And the boldest held his breath
For a time.—

But the might of England flushed
To anticipate the scene;
And her van the fleeter rushed
O'er the deadly space between.
"Hearts of oak!" our captain cried; when each gun
From its adamantine lips
Spread a death-shade round the ships,
Like the hurricane eclipse
Of the sun.

Again! again! again!
And the havoe did not slack,
Till a feeble cheer the Dane
To our cheering sent us back:—

Their shots along the deep slowly boom:—
Then ceased—and all is wail,
As they strike the shattered sail,
Or, in conflagration pale,
Light the gloom.—

Out spoke the victor then,
As he hailed them o'er the wave:
"Ye are brothers! ye are men!
And we conquer but to save:
So peace instead of death let us bring;
But yield, proud foe, thy fleet,
With the crews, at England's feet,
And make submission meet
To our King."—

Then Denmark blessed our chief,
That he gave her wounds repose;
And the sounds of joy and grief
From her people wildly rose,
As Death withdrew his shades from the day;
While the sun smiling bright
O'er a wide and woeful sight,
Where the fires of funeral light
Died away.

Now joy, Old England, raise!
For the tidings of thy might,
By the festal cities' blaze,
Whilst the wine-cup shines in light;
And yet, amidst that joy and uproar,
Let us think of them that sleep
Full many a fathom deep,
By thy wild and stormy steep,
Elsinore!

Brave hearts! to Britain's pride
Once so faithful and so true,
On the deck of fame that died,—
With the gallant good Riou:
Soft sigh the winds of Heaven o'er their grave!
While the billow mournful rolls,
And the mermaid's song condoles,
Singing glory to the souls
Of the brave!

THOMAS CAMPBELL.

#### The Burial of Sir John Moore (1809)

Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note, As his corse to the rampart we hurried: Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot O'er the grave where our hero was buried.

We buried him darkly at dead of night,
The sods with our bayonets turning:
By the struggling moonbeam's misty light
And the lantern dimly burning.

No useless coffin enclosed his breast,
Nor in sheet nor in shroud we wound him;
But he lay like a warrior taking his rest
With his martial cloak around him.

Few and short were the prayers we said,
And we spoke not a word of sorrow,
But we steadfastly gazed on the face of the dead,
And we bitterly thought of the morrow.

We thought, as we hollowed his narrow bed
And smoothed down his lonely pillow,
That the foc and the stranger would tread o'er his head,
And we far away on the billow!

Lightly they'll talk of the spirit that's gone, And o'er his cold ashes upbraid him,— But little he'll reek, if they let him sleep on In the grave where a Briton has laid him.

But half of our heavy task was done
When the clock struck the hour for retiring;
And we heard the distant and random gun
That the foe was sullenly firing.

Slowly and sadly we laid him down
From the field of his fame fresh and gory;
We carved not a line, and we raised not a stone—
But we left him alone with his glory.

CHARLES WOLFE.

### The Eve of Quatre Bras (1815)

There was a sound of revelry by night,
And Belgium's capital had gathered then
Her Beauty and Her Chivalry, and bright
The lamps shone o'er fair women and brave men;
A thousand hearts beat happily; and when
Music arose with its voluptuous swell,
Soft eyes looked love to eyes which spake again,
And all went merry as a marriage bell:
But hush! hark! a deep sound strikes like a rising knell!

Did ye not hear it?—No; 'twas but the wind, Or the car rattling o'er the stony street: On with the dance! let joy be unconfined; No sleep till morn, when Youth and Pleasure meet

To chase the glowing hours with flying feet:—
But hark!—that heavy sound breaks in once more,
As if the clouds its echoes would repeat;
And nearer, clearer, deadlier than before!

Arm! Arm! it is—it is—the cannon's opening roar!

Within a windowed niche of that high hall
Sate Brunswick's fated chieftain; he did hear
That sound the first amid the festival,

And eaught its tone with Death's prophetic ear; And when they smiled because he deemed it near, His heart more truly knew that peal too well Which stretched his father on a bloody bier,

And roused the vengeance blood alone could quell: He rushed into the field, and, foremost fighting, fell.

Ah! then and there was hurrying to and fro,
And gathering tears, and tremblings of distress,
And cheeks all pale, which but an hour ago
Blushed at the praise of their own loveliness;
And there were sudden partings, such as press
The life from out young hearts, and choking sighs
Which ne'er might be repeated: who could guess
If ever more should meet those mutual eyes,

And there was mounting in hot haste: the steed,
The mustering squadron, and the elattering ear,
Went pouring forward with impetuous speed,
And swiftly forming in the ranks of war;
And the deep thunder peal on peal afar;
And near, the beat of the alarming drum
Roused up the soldier ere the morning star;
While thronged the citizens, with terror dumb,
Or whispering, with white lips—"The foe! they come!

they come!"

And wild and high the "Cameron's Gathering" rose!
The war-note of Lochiel, which Albyn's hills
Have heard; and heard, too, have her Saxon foes:—
How in the noon of night that pibroch thrills,
Savage and shrill! But with the breath which fills
Their mountain-pipe, so fill the mountaineers
With the fierce native daring which instils
The stirring memory of a thousand years,
And Evan's, Donald's fame rings in each clansman's ears!

And Ardennes waves above them her green leaves,
Dewy with Nature's tear-drops, as they pass,
Grieving, if aught inanimate e'er grieves,
Over the unreturning brave,—alas!
Ere the evening to be trodden like the grass,
Which, now beneath them, but above shall grow
In its next verdure, when this fiery mass
Of living valour, rolling on the foe,
And burning with high hope, shall moulder cold and low.

Last noon beheld them full of lusty life,
Last eve in Beauty's circle proudly gay,
The midnight brought the signal-sound of strife,
The morn marshalling in arms,—the day

Battle's magnificently stern array!

The thunder-clouds close o'er it, which when rent

The earth is covered thick with other clay,

Which her own clay shall cover, heaped and pent, Rider and horse,—friend, foe,—in one red burial blent!

# 7. Illustrative Prose Passages

#### Dapper George

On the afternoon of the 14th of June, 1727, two horsemen might have been perceived galloping along the road from Chelsea to Richmond. The foremost, cased in the jackboots of the period, was a broad-faced, jolly-looking, and very corpulent cavalier; but, by the manner in which he urged his horse, you might see that he was a bold as well as a skilful rider. Indeed, no man loved sport better; and in the hunting fields of Norfolk, no squire rode more boldly after the fox, or cheered Ringwood and Sweetlips more lustily, than he who now thundered over the Richmond road.

He speedily reached Richmond Lodge, and asked to see the owner of the mansion. The mistress of the house and her ladies, to whom our friend was admitted, said he could not be introduced to the master, however pressing his business might be. The master was asleep after his dinner; he always slept after his dinner: and woe be to the person who interrupted him! Nevertheless, our stout friend of the jackboots put the affrighted ladies aside, opened the forbidden door of the bedroom, wherein upon the bed lay a little gentleman; and here the eager messenger knelt down in his jackboots.

He on the bed started up, and with many oaths and a strong German accent asked who was there, and who dared to disturb him.

"I am Sir Robert Walpole," said the messenger. The awakened sleeper hated Sir Robert Walpole. "I have the honour to announce to your Majesty that your royal father, King George I, died at Osnaburg, on Saturday last, the 10th instant."

"Dat is one big lie!" roared out his sacred Majesty King George II; but Sir Robert Walpole stated the fact, and from that day until three and thirty years after, George, the second of the name, ruled over England.

When we hear of Dapper George at war, it is certain that he demeaned himself like a little man of valour. At Dettingen his horse ran away with him, and with difficulty was stopped from carrying him into the enemy's lines. The king, dismounting from the fiery quadruped, said bravely, "Now I know I shall not run away"; and placed himself at the head of the foot, drew his sword, brandishing it at the whole of the French army, and calling out to his own men to come on, in bad English, but with the most famous pluck and spirit. In '45, when the Pretender was at Derby, and many people began to look pale, the king never lost his courage-not he. "Pooh! don't talk to me that stuff!" he said, like a gallant little prince as he was, and never for one moment allowed his equanimity, or his business, or his pleasures, or his travels, to be disturbed. On public festivals he always appeared in the hat and coat he wore on the famous day of Oudenarde; and the people laughed, but kindly, at the odd old garment, for bravery never goes out of fashion.

From Thackeray's The Four Georges.

#### The Death of Wolfe

Upon the English right Wolfe was pressing forward at the head of his grenadiers and the 28th regiment, with Colonel Fletcher and the 35th close behind him. What must have been the young commander's feelings at such a moment! What a reaction from weeks of suspense,

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from days and nights of despair! The weak western ramparts of Quebec were within a few hundred yards of him; the intervening space was covered with the beaten remnants of the enemy, driven onwards in headlong rout before the bayonets of the English infantry and the keen broadswords of the more nimble Highlanders.

Wolfe had an almost exaggerated scorn of danger, so much so that even his military friends have left on record their dread of the consequences whenever he was called upon to take a conspicuous part in action. His wrist was shattered, but this he had probably forgotten; it seems likely that he was now singled out as a mark by the sharp-shooters in the woods. A bullet struck him at this moment in the groin, inflicting a wound that would of itself in all probability have proved mortal. He paid no heed to it, however, and pressed on at the head of his men. How long his indomitable will would have thus sustained him was not put to the test, for almost immediately another ball passed through his lungs. He staggered forward a few paces, struggling to keep his feet. Lieutenant Browne of the Grenadiers was close at hand. "Support me," gasped Wolfe, "lest my gallant fellows should see me fall." The noble effort, however, was hopeless, and before Browne could reach him he sank to the ground.

Mr. Henderson, a volunteer, and a private soldier who saw the general fall, rushed forward to his assistance, and these were followed a few moments later by an officer of artillery. Lifting him in their arms, they proceeded at once to carry him towards their rear; but a little way, however, for the dying general soon asked to be laid on the ground. He shook his head at the mention of a surgeon. "It is needless," he whispered, "it is all over with me," and immediately sank into a sort of stupor.

"They run; see how they run!" cried out one of his attendants. "Who run?" murmured Wolfe, waking up as if out of sleep. "The enemy, sir; egad, they give way everywhere!" "Go, one of you, my lads," returned the dying man, "with all speed to Colonel Burton, and tell him to march Webb's regiment down to the St. Charles river and cut off the retreat of the fugitives to the bridge." Then turning on one side he murmured, "God be praised, I now die in peace;" and in a few minutes, without apparent struggle or pain, the gallant soul had left the sickly and stricken frame.

From A. G. Bradley's Wolfe.

# Extracts from the Declaration of Independence

In Congress, July 4, 1775.

. . . The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world. He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good. He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws, for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

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He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment

of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers, to harass our people, and eat out their substance. He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to jurisdiction foreign to our constitution and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended

legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us: For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states: For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world: For imposing taxes on us without our consent: For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury: For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offences: For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighbouring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies: For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments: For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring

themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection and waging war against us. He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun, with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms: our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A Prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant is unfit to be a ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attention to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which

would inevitably interrupt our connexions and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connexion between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honour.

### How News of the American War was received at Home

October 6, 1774.

There are whispers of their having assembled an armed force, and of earnest supplications arrived for succours of men and ships. A civil war is no trifle; and how we are to suppress or pursue it in such a vast region, with a handful of men, I am not an Alexander to guess; and for the fleet, can we put it upon easters and wheel it from Hudson's Bay to Florida? But I am an ignorant soul, and neither pretend to knowledge nor foreknowledge.

# December 15, 1774.

The long-expected sloop is arrived at last, and is, indeed, a man of war! The General Congress have voted a non-importation, a non-exportation, a non-consumption; that, in case hostilities committed by the troops at Boston, the several provinces will march to the assistance of their countrymen; that the cargoes of ships now at sea shall be sold on their arrival, and the money arising thence given to the poor at Boston; that a letter, in the nature of a petition of rights, shall be sent to the King; another to the House of Commons; a third to the people of England; a demand of repeal of all the Acts of Parliament affecting North America passed during this reign, as also of the Quebec Bill: and these resolutions not to be altered till such repeal is obtained.

### June 5, 1775.

This day se'nnight it was divulged by a London Evening Post extraordinary, that a ship on its way to Lisbon happened to call at England, and left some very wonderful accounts, nay, and affidavits, saying, to wit, that General Gage had sent nine hundred men to nail up the cannon and seize a magazine at Concord, of which, the accidental captain owns, two cannon were spiked or damaged. An hundred and fifty Americans, who swear they were fired on first, disliked the proceeding, returned blows, and drove back the party. Lord Percy was dispatched to support them, but new recruits arriving, his Lordship sent for better advice, which he received,

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as it was, to retire, which he did. The King's troops lost an hundred and fifty, the enemy not an hundred. The captain was sent for to be examined, but refused. He says Gage sent away a sloop four days before he sailed, which sloop, I suppose, is gone to Lisbon, for in eight days no news of it. The public were desired by authority to suspend their belief; but their patience is out, and they persist in believing the first account, which seems rather probable, in that another account is come of the mob having risen at New York, between anger and triumph, and have seized, unloaded, and destroyed the cargoes of two ships that were going with supplies to Gage, and, by all accounts, that whole continent is in a flame.

So here is this fatal war commenced!

The child that is unborn shall rue
The hunting of that day!

August 7, 1775.

Mrs. Britannia orders her senate to proclaim America a continent of cowards, and vote it should be starved unless it will drink tea with her. She sends her only army to be besieged in one of their towns, and half her fleet to besiege the terra firma; but orders her army to do nothing, in hopes that the American senate at Philadelphia will be so frightened at the British army being besieged in Boston, that it will sue for peace. At last she gives her army leave to sally out, but being twice defeated, she determines to carry on the war so vigorously till she has not a man left, that all England will be satisfied with the total loss of America; and if everybody is satisfied, who can be blamed? Besides, is not our dignity maintained? have we not carried our majesty beyond all example?

May 17, 1776.

As I knew no more than the newspapers would tell you, I did not announce to you the retreat of the King's army from Boston. Great pains were taken, and no wonder, to soften this disgrace. Such arts may serve a moment, but the truth emerges, unless some advantage compensates—and as yet, that is neither the case, nor seems likely to be. What is or will be the fate of General Howe or his army cannot be known for some time—I doubt his prospect is not fair. Many think Quebee itself is gone, and that the ministry know it. The American war begins to lose its popularity.

# August 11, 1776.

The Congress has declared all the Provinces independent, has condemned the Mayor of New York to be hanged for corresponding with their enemies, and has seized Franklin, not the famous doctor, but one of the King's governors. I hope this savage kind of war will not proceed; but they seem to be very determined, and that makes the prospect very melancholy.

#### November 7, 1777.

You will have seen in the papers, before you can receive this, such accounts of a total defeat of Washington, that you might wonder at my silence if I did not say a word; that word must be, that I very much doubt the fact; and, if it was known at New York so long ago as the supposed *Gazette* thence says, it would be wonderful, indeed, that General Howe should keep it a profound secret from the Government here, whom he might suppose a little interested to hear some good news or other after a long dearth.

The first breath of this report was said to come from

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France yesterday sevennight. On Sunday morning early it was asserted as a fact by a New York Gazette arrived at Liverpool. On Tuesday I came to town, intending to write to you; but, finding no confirmation come, I thought it prudent not to assert what I knew no better. From Tuesday to Friday night is a long interval on such an occasion; and, though some still say they believe Washington beaten, they do not use, I observe, much stronger terms than received a check. One has heard of towns burnt to the ground, that have turned out to be a chimney on fire. In the meantime I tell you all I know, and I am not apt to believe more of things at such a distance.

Of what there is no doubt is, the check Burgoyne has received, and the distress of his army, that the last accounts left in danger of being starved. There have been accounts of his recovering the blow, but I cannot find one person who believes that. In one word, it is a very serious moment; and, without greater views, the misery of so many who have relations and friends both in Howe's and Burgoyne's armies is terrible. It is known that the latter had twenty-six officers wounded; and as their names are not come, ten times the number may be suffering the worst anxiety. The distance of the war augments its horrors almost as much as its expense, and makes it grow every day more irksome.

I see no prospect of an end to this American war, but from our inability to carry it on: and what can that produce but a war from France—I don't say with France: for where can we attack them if we lose America; and where are we to be attacked but in our own islands and the East Indies—which are not quite near enough to assist each other? There is no looking towards such a prospect.

If Burgoyne's army is destroyed, little force left in Canada, only seven thousand men in New York, Howe's

army not increased by his tedious voyage, and three battles with Washington, if true—where are we to stamp and conjure up new armics? And what will less armics achieve, which such large ones have not compassed in three campaigns? We have lost Boston, have got New York and perhaps Philadelphia. If the Americans have fought, they will fight. If they have not, can you make them? And can you conquer them without beating them? Can you maintain the country when you have conquered it?

November 26, 1781.

An account came yesterday that could not but be expected, that Washington and the French have made Lord Cornwallis and his whole army prisoners. I do not know what others think, but to me it seems fortunate that they are not all cut to pieces. It is not heroic perhaps, but I am glad that this disaster arriving before our fleet reached the Chesapeak, it turned back to New York without attacking the French fleet, who are above three to two, thirty-seven to twenty-three. This is all I know yet; and yet this comes at an untoward moment; for the Parliament meets to-morrow, and it puts the Speech and speeches a little into disorder.

I cannot put on the face of the day, and act grief. Whatever puts an end to the American war will save the lives of thousands—millions of money too.

# December 2, 1782.

The day that I little expected to live to see is arrived! Peace came this morning: thank God! That is the first thought: the effusion of human gore is stopped, nor are there to be more widows and orphans out of the common course of things.

From Horace Walpole's Letters.

# The First Railway

On Tuesday, that great work, the Darlington and Stockton Railway, was formally opened by the proprietors for the use of the public. It is a single railway of twenty-five miles in length, and will open the London market to the colliers of the western part of the county of Durham, as well as facilitate the obtaining of fuel to the country along its line, and in the northern parts of Yorkshire. . . .

The novelty of the scene and the fineness of the day had attracted an immense concourse of spectators—the fields on each side of the railway being literally covered with ladies and gentlemen on horseback, and pedestrians of all kinds. The train of carriages was then attached to a locomotive engine of the most improved construction, and built by Mr. George Stephenson, in the following order: Locomotive engine, with the engineer (Mr. Stephenson) and assistants; tender, with coals and water; next, six wagons loaded with coals and flour; then an elegant covered coach, with the committee and other proprietors of the railway; then twenty-one wagons, fitted up on the occasion for passengers; and, last of all, six wagons loaded with coals, making altogether a train of thirtyeight carriages, exclusive of the engine and tender. Tickets were distributed to the number of near 300, for those who, it was intended, should occupy the coach and wagons; but such was the pressure and crowd, that both loaded and empty carriages were instantly filled with passengers. The signal being given, the engine started off with this immense train of carriages, and here the scene became most interesting—the horsemen galloping across the fields to accompany the engine, and the people on foot running on each side of the road endeavouring in vain to keep up. . . .

Nothing could exceed the beauty and grandeur of the Throughout the whole distance, the fields and lanes were covered with elegantly dressed ladies, and all descriptions of spectators. The bridges, under which the procession, in some places, darted with astonishing rapidity, were lined with spectators cheering and waving their hats, which had a grand effect. At Darlington the whole inhabitants of the town were out to witness the procession. But though all along the line people on foot crowded the fields on each side, and here and there a lady or gentleman on horseback, yet the cavalcade was not joined by many horses and carriages until it approached within a few miles of Stockton; and here the situation of the railway, which runs parallel and close to the turnpike road leading from Darlington to Yarm and Stockton, gave them a fine opportunity of viewing the procession. Numerous horses, carriages, gigs, earts, and other vehicles travelled along with the engine and her immense train of carriages, in some places within a few yards, without the horses seeming the least frightened; and at one time, the passengers by the engine had the pleasure of accompanying and cheering their brother passengers by the stage coach which passed alongside, and of observing the striking contrast exhibited by the power of the engine and horses—the engine with her six hundred passengers and load, and the coach with four horses and only sixteen passengers.

From the Scots Magazine (1825).

# 8. Questions

These questions are designed as a test of the care with which the text has been read, and also as a stimulus to thought. Those enclosed in brackets make greater demands on the pupil than the rest.

#### CHAPTER I

1. Contrast the modes of travelling in the reign of George I with those of the present time.

2. We often complain of the payment of rates. Show, from the writers of this reign, that our complaints are groundless regarding the public money spent on roads, sanitation, and lighting.

3. Describe the quaint old methods of designating shops, trades, and houses at this time. [Contrast the Renais-

sance and the Gothic style of architecture.]

4. Describe the dress and life of the people of Hogarth's time. [Try to visit the Hogarth room at the National Gallery.]

# CHAPTER II

1. Describe the life and labours of villagers in the time of George I. [Does the change in these conditions in any way account for the present depopulation of rural districts?]

2. Contrast the education given in the early part of the eighteenth century with that which you now receive. Who first provided for the education of the young?

3. The more thickly populated parts of England were on the east and south. What causes changed this state of things to the north and west?

 Tell of the improvements brought about in agriculture between 1700 and 1750.

# CHAPTER III

1. Show by a simple genealogical table that George I was descended from James I of England.

2. Who was meant by "The King over the Water"?

Give the derivation of the term "Jacobite".

3. What do you understand by the terms "Whigs" and "Tories"? Give the origin of both parties.

4. What line of kings did the Whigs, Whimsicals, and Tories respectively support?

# CHAPTER IV

- 1. Give reasons why the loss of George I should cause regret to his German subjects.
- 2. Why did the English so coldly welcome their new king?
  - 3. Mention the chief points in the character of George I.

### CHAPTER V

- 1. What do you understand by (a) Privy Council, (b) Cabinet Council?
- 2. Explain the term "Ministry"; illustrate your answer.
- 3. Show why Sir Robert Walpole was the first statesman who was known as "Prime Minister".
- 4. Describe the Houses of Parliament which met in the old palace of the king at Westminster.

#### CHAPTER VI

- 1. What do you know of the first Parliament of George I?
  - 2. Explain what is meant by "impeached". Illustrate

your answer from the impeachment of Oxford and Boling-broke.

3. Why was the Earl of Mar called "Bobbing John"? Show that this was an appropriate nickname.

4. Name the principal leaders in Scotland in the

rebellion of 1715.

5. Tell of the principal events of the Jacobite rising in the north of England.

#### CHAPTER VII

1. Who was the Old Pretender? Say what you can of his landing in Scotland.

2. Give a short account of the escape of Forster and

Lord Nithsdale.

3. Show that the Quadruple Alliance greatly weakened the cause of the Jacobites.

#### CHAPTER VIII

1. Give an account of the Septennial Act of 1716. [How has this since been changed?]

2. What is the meaning of "the National Debt"?

Describe its origin.

3. Why was the Bank of England established in 1694?

4. Account for the rise in the shares of the South Sea Company.

5. Give an account of the financial measures of Robert Walpole.

#### CHAPTER IX

1. Explain what is meant by the "Order of the Garter".

2. Name some eminent men who lived in the reign of George I, and say what you know about them.

# CHAPTER X

- 1. Show that George II was brave and fearless.
- 2. Why was this king called "Dapper George"?
- 3. Show that "Caroline the Good" well deserved her title.
- 4. What was the condition of the prisons in the reign of George II? Explain what is meant by a "Fleet marriage".
- 5. How did the people take their pleasure at this period?

# CHAPTER XI

- 1. Name and describe the parties in opposition to Sir Robert Walpole.
- 2. What was the cause of dispute in this reign between the English and the Spanish?
- 3. Who said "I recommend my soul to God, and my cause to my country"? Describe his treatment at the hands of the Spanish.
- 4. Who said "You are ringing your bells now, but you will soon be wringing your hands"?
  - 5. Describe Vernon's expeditions.
  - 6. Give an account of Anson's adventurous cruise.

# CHAPTER XII

- 1. Describe the cause of the Porteous Riots.
- 2. How did Queen Caroline deal with this matter? Why might it have been serious?
  - 3. Discuss the character of the Great Peace Minister.

## CHAPTER XIII

1. What do you understand by the real wealth of a country?

2. What were the causes of war in the eighteenth

century?

3. Relate the endeavours of Charles VI of Austria to secure his throne for Maria Theresa.

4. Give particulars of the Pragmatic Sanction: the League of Frankfort: the Battles of Dettingen and Fontenoy.

#### CHAPTER XIV

- 1. Describe the character of Bonnie Prince Charlie.
- 2. How was the Young Chevalier received by the Scots?
- 3. Tabulate the chief events in the rebellion of '45.
- 4. Insert in a sketch map the Young Pretender's route from Prestonpans to Culloden Moor.
- 5. Give a short account of Charles's life after the cause of the Stuarts was lost at Culloden Moor.

# CHAPTER XV

- 1. What were the results of the War of the Austrian Succession?
- 2. How did the death of Frederick Prince of Wales affect the succession to the throne?
- 3. What change was made in the Julian Calendar? How was it accepted by this country?
- 4. Give the situations of Arcot, Calcutta, and Plassey. Relate the chief events connected with them.
  - 5. Contrast the success and failure of Clive and Dupleix.

#### CHAPTER XVI

- 1. Describe the English and French possessions in America in the middle of the eighteenth century.
- 2. What French scheme led to fighting in North America between the English and French settlers?
  - 3. Say what you can of William Pitt, Earl of Chatham.
- 4. "We must muzzle this terrible cornet of horse." Who said these words? Why? To whom did they refer?
- 5. Give the causes of the Seven Years' War. What did Pitt mean when he said "America must be conquered on the plains of Germany"?

#### CHAPTER XVII

- 1. Where is Minorca? With whose death is it associated? Describe the events.
- 2. "Here is my son who has ruined me, and disgraced himself." Who said these words? Comment on them.
- 3. Look out the important town of Pittsburg. Who gave it its name? What was it called when we took it from the French? What islands did we take during this year?
- 4. What was Pitt's plan for conquering Canada? How did Wolfe take Quebec?
  - 5. Tabulate the wonderful victories of the year 1759.

#### CHAPTER XVIII

- 1. In what respects was the reign of George II (a) a failure, (b) a success?
- 2. What do you know of John Wesley? What religious sect did he found?
- 3. Who accompanied John Wesley on his missionary journeys? How were they treated?

#### CHAPTER XIX

- 1. What great change in the trade of England occurred in the reign of George III?
- 2. What inventions led directly to the "industrial revolution"?
- 3. Say how the machines alluded to in Question 2 were first received. Show that they entirely changed the conditions of labour.
- 4. Mention causes of distress among the poor other than the introduction of machinery.
- 5. How were water-ways made much more useful in this reign? To what purpose had steam not been turned?

#### CHAPTER XX

- 1. Describe the character of George III.
- 2. What does Walpole say of him?
- 3. Explain the "Family Compact". Why did Pitt resign?
- 4. Mention the chief points of Pitt's famous speech which resulted in England forsaking Frederick of Prussia.
  - 5. Describe fully the Peace of Paris, 1763.

#### CHAPTER XXI

- 1. Mention some of the Prime Ministers in the early part of the reign of George III. Explain what is meant by the "Triumvirate Ministry". By what other names was the Bedford Ministry known?
  - 2. Relate the affair of John Wilkes.
- 3. What do you understand by Grenville's Stamp Act? What were its results?

- 4. What is meant by "Taxation without Representation"?
- 5. Describe briefly the Repeal of the American Stamp Act and the chief persons connected with the same.
- 6. Mention some of the mistakes made by the Grafton Ministry.

### CHAPTER XXII

- 1. Show that trade interference largely brought about the American War of Independence.
- 2. Make a sketch map of the United States—enter the thirteen colonies. Describe the American Flag.
  - 3. Contrast the New England and Southern Colonists.
- 4. Name the final causes which led to the American War of Independence.
- 5. Name some of the men who ably argued in favour of peace.

#### CHAPTER XXIII

- 1. Briefly sketch the English plan of campaign in the American War of Independence.
- 2. Tabulate the battles. Mention our successes and failures.
- 3. What events in Europe forced us to conclude peace in this war?
- 4. Show that this war "commenced in iniquity and folly, and was concluded in disaster and shame".
  - 5. Mention the chief points in Chatham's last speech.
- 6. Why does Macaulay call Pitt "the first Englishman of his time who made England the first country of the world"?

#### CHAPTER XXIV

- 1. Describe the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown.
- 2. How did Lord North receive the news? How did it affect the Government?
- 3. Give an account of Rodney's victory in the West Indies.
- 4. What do you know of Lord Shelburne? What arrangements did his Ministry make for peace?
- 5. Show how tactful was George III in agreeing to the separation of the United States from this country.
- 6. How did England after losing one great country gain another?

## CHAPTER XXV

- 1. What important changes in the government of India were brought about by Lord North's Regulating Act?
- 2. How did the estates of Daylesford affect the whole of Warren Hastings's life?
- 3. How did Lord North's Regulating Act affect Warren Hastings?
- 4. With what difficulties had Warren Hastings to contend? Give an account of the first Maratha and first Mysore War.
- 5. Give an account of the trial of Warren Hastings. What do you know of his character?
- 6. In what ways did Clive and Hastings increase England's power in India?

#### CHAPTER XXVI

- 1. What penalties were repealed by Sir George Savile's Act? How was this received by many?
- 2. Describe Lord George Gordon's march to Westminster, and its result.

3. What further anxieties had the king just now through his children?

4. Fully describe the early life and greatness of the

younger Pitt.

5. Contrast the character of Fox with that of his great opponent.

# CHAPTER XXVII

1. What great event made world-wide history in the latter part of the eighteenth century?

2. What real causes for discontent were there in France

at this time?

- 3. Describe the States-General—The Third Estate—and the National Assembly.
- 4. Explain what was meant by Democrats, Aristocrats, and Jacobins.
- 5. Describe the events in Paris, especially in relation to the Bastille, Versailles, Tuileries, Legislative Assembly, and National Convention.
- 6. How did Napoleon Buonaparte first come into prominence?

# CHAPTER XXVIII

- 1. How did our countrymen receive the news of the French Revolution?
- 2. Describe the effect on all Englishmen when Burke published his *Reflections on the French Revolution*.

3. How did this Revolution cause William Wordsworth, the Lake poet, to modify his views on freedom?

- 4. Discuss the aims and methods of the French Revolution.
- 5. Tabulate the reasons for our long war with the French.

#### CHAPTER XXIX

- 1. Into what three periods would you divide the long war with France?
- 2. Show that Napoleon's early successes in the first period of this war isolated England.
- 3. What results important for England arose from the alliance of the Dutch and French? What naval victories accrued to England?
- 4. Describe the mutiny of the British sailors at Spithead, and at the Nore.
- 5. How did Jervis and Nelson frustrate two of Napoleon's great schemes?
- 6. Describe the Battle of the Nile and its important results.

# CHAPTER XXX

- 1. Mention the causes which led to a revival of hostilities with France.
- 2. How would you divide the second period of the long war? Give reasons.
- 3. What preparations were the French making for an invasion of England? How did England try to protect herself?
- 4. Fully describe the Battle of Trafalgar and its important results.
- 5. Say all you can about the Battle of Austerlitz. Why were the results so serious?

#### CHAPTER XXXI

- 1. How did Napoleon try to crush England? Fully explain the Decrees of Berlin.
- 2. How did England reply? Describe the Orders in Council.

- 3. What change in our policy led to the Peninsular War?
- 4. Tell of the death of Sir John Moore and our victory at Corunna.

# CHAPTER XXXII

- 1. What were the important results of the Battle of the Nations?
- 2. Where is Elba? Describe Napoleon's exile and escape.

3. Say all you can of the First Peace of Paris and

the Congress of Vienna.

4. Tabulate the historical events of "The Hundred Days".

5. Give a full account of the Battle of Waterloo.

6. What were the results of Wellington's victory? Name the later notable events in Napoleon's career. In what ways did France benefit from the reign of "The Little Corporal"?

# CHAPTER XXXIII

- 1. From what illness did George III repeatedly suffer during his reign? How did this affect the Prince of Wales?
- 2. Give the cause, events, and results of the war with the United States. What part was played by Canada?
- 3. Tell of the distress at the beginning of the nineteenth century. What were the causes?
- 4. How did England meet the bill for its long and costly wars?

#### CHAPTER XXXIV

- 1. Tell of the noble works accomplished by Raikes and Howard.
- 2. How was the abolition of the slave trade in Africa brought about? To whom was this due?
- 3. Describe how Farmer George was responsible for improvements in agriculture, and Reynolds and Gainsborough for improvements in the dress of the people.
- 4. Mention the development of the newspaper in this reign.
- 5. What do you know of Dr. Johnson and his friends? Describe their habits and customs.
- 6. What important discoveries led to an improvement in artificial lighting?

#### CHAPTER XXXV

- 1. Who was the "First Gentleman in Europe"? How did he earn this title? Say what you can about his character.
- 2. Tell of the visit of George IV to Ireland. What town was named after him?

#### CHAPTER XXXVI

- 1. Give an account of Lord Liverpool and his Ministry.
- 2. What do you know of George Canning? Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of Party Government.
- 3. Why was the Prime Minister known as Goody Goodrich?
  - 4. Give an account of the Battle of Navarino.
- 5. State the reasons for the English helping the Greeks against the Turks. Who was Lord Byron?
  - 6. What wrecked the Liberal-Tory Ministry?

#### CHAPTER XXXVII

- 1. What do you understand by Parliamentary Reform?
- 2. Give reasons showing there was good cause at this time for dissatisfaction with the state of representation in Parliament.
  - 3. Describe the Manchester Riots.
- 4. What caused the Cato Street Conspiracy? Why is it memorable?
- 5. Tabulate the attempts in this reign to obtain Parliamentary Reform.
- 6. What unfair treatment had long been meted to the Roman Catholics? How were these disabilities removed?

#### CHAPTER XXXVIII

- 1. Why was William IV called "the Sailor King"?
- 2. Give reasons for the failure of the Iron Duke as Prime Minister.
- 3. What great statesmen endeavoured to pass Reform Bills? Who opposed these measures?
- 4. Describe the failure of the two attempts to pass the Reform Bill of 1831.
  - 5. Tell of the passing of the Reform Bill of 1832.

#### CHAPTER XXXIX

- 1. Show the immediate necessity for reforming the Criminal Law. What great men brought about these desirable Reforms?
- 2. Why did Poor Law Administration require alteration? Describe the Poor Law Amendment Act of 1831.
- 3. Tell of the conditions of labour in our factories and mines in the early part of the nineteenth century.
  - 4. Name some of the men who brought about better

conditions for the workers and their children. How was this accomplished?

5. Nations, like individuals, follow the dictates of conscience. How was this shown in the Act for the Abolition of Slavery, 1833?

# CHAPTER XL

- 1. How did the labours of Telford and Macadam benefit mankind?
- 2. Tell of the application of steam to the various industries. Show that these have been of great service to us.
- 3. What new method of sending messages was discovered in 1837? Name some of the uses to which the power of electricity has since been applied.
- 4. Name the landscape and portrait painters of this time. What are the characteristics of their pictures?
- 5. Who was Gilbert White? Show that his life study has become one of the subjects taught in most schools.
- 6. What men and societies in this reign had interested themselves in educating the masses?

#### CHAPTER XLI

- 1. Discuss the injustice of the Penal Laws in Ireland.
- 2. Tell of the laws which hampered Irish trade.
- 3. How was Ireland governed before 1801? Give reasons for dissatisfaction amongst the Irish.
- 4. What were the origin and nature of Grattan's Parliament?
- 5. Name some of the societies formed at this time. Mention their aims, success, and failure.
- 6. Describe the Irish Rebellion of 1798. To what did it lead? How did Ireland benefit from the Catholic Bill?

## CHAPTER XLII

- 1. Give two facts that should be remembered when considering our American and Indian colonies.
- 2. Tabulate the important events in colonizing (a) Australia, (b) New Zealand.
  - 3. Show how we gradually acquired territory in Africa.
- 4. Mention some interesting historical facts connected with Ceylon, West Indies, and Pitcairn Islands.
- 5. Show that "the further England's colonies spread the better it is for the world" is only true under certain conditions.
- 6. Contrast the size of the British Empire at the beginning and end of the Hanoverian Period.



